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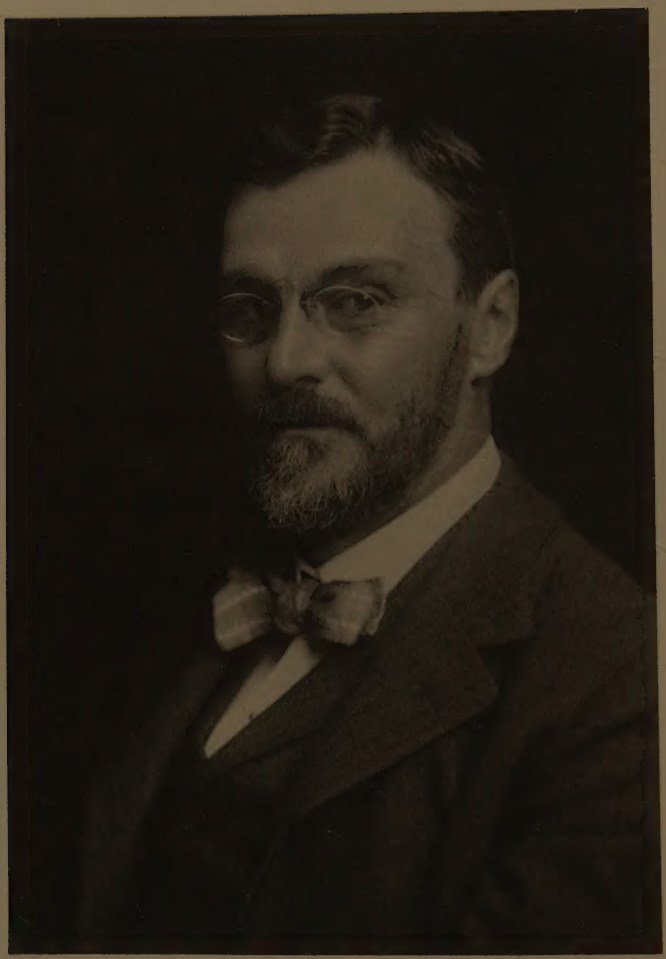

R. Beckwell Forest

PROCEEDINGS

OF THE

NATIONAL CONFERENCE

OF

Charities and Correction

AT THE

THIRTIETH ANNUAL SESSION HELD IN THE CITY OF ATLANTA, MAY 6-12, 1903.

EDITED BY
ISABEL C. BARROWS

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PREFACE.

The National Conference of Charities and Correction held its last session in Atlanta, Georgia, where it received a characteristically hospitable welcome from the people of the South, some of whom also took part in the discussions and contributed valuable papers to the proceedings.

It was urged by the Executive Committee that if possible the papers and discussions this year should be limited to 500 pages and the editor tried to compress the volume into that space. But the men and women interested in child labor especially did not seem to know how to lay down their pens when that important subject was under discussion and as this was the first time a chapter had been devoted to that topic it seemed only gracious to yield all the space desired. Hence ninety-one pages are given to it. If to this we add the chapters on juvenile delinquents, feeble-minded children and epileptics we shall find nearly a third of the volume given up to children, showing that the Conference is considering preventive measures to a much greater degree than formerly. If thorough preventive work is done there will be less and less room needed for the side of "Correction."

Much more space than usual is given to reports of discussions at the general sessions and in the section meetings. It may eventually be necessary to divide the proceedings, but though the present volume is portly, it is not too large to handle and it will be found full of interest and inspiration.

The next meeting of the Conference will be in Portland, Me., in June, 1904, with Mr. Jeffrey R. Brackett, of Baltimore, president.

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The National Conference of Charities and Correction.

ORGANIZATION OF CONFERENCE 1904.

TO BE HELD IN

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RULES OF PROCEDURE FOR THE NATIONAL CONFERENCE OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTION.

Preamble.

The National Conference of Charities exists to discuss the problems of charities and correction, to disseminate information and promote reforms. It does not formulate platforms.

I. Membership.

All persons who are interested in charities and correction may become members by registering their names and paying the annual fee.

Honorary members may be elected on recommendation of the Executive Committee.

The annual membership fee shall be $2.50, and the sustaining membership fee shall be $10 annually. These membership fees shall entitle each member to a copy of the Proceedings and other publications of the Conference.

State Boards of Charities and other societies and institutions subscribing for the Proceedings in quantities shall be entitled to enroll their officers and members as members of this Conference at the rate of one member for each $2.50 paid.

II. Officers.

The officers of the Conference shall be a President, three Vice-Presidents, a General Secretary, six Secretaries, a Treasurer, and an Official Reporter and Editor, also a Corresponding Secretary for each state and territory. These officers shall be elected annually by the Conference.

III. Committees.

The standing committee shall be an Executive Committee and a committee on each subject which it is proposed to discuss at the ensuing Conference.

The Executive Committee shall consist of the President, and all ex-Presidents *ex-officio,* and seven members to be elected annually by the Conference.

The President, soon after the opening of the Conference, shall appoint a committee of seven on organization of the next Conference; also a committee of three on resolutions, to which all resolutions shall be referred without debate.

At each annual session of the Conference, on the first day after the organization, the members present from each state or territory shall meet and appoint one of their number to represent them on a committee to be known as the Committee on Time and Place of the next meeting. The Committee on Time and Place shall meet on the afternoon or evening of the same day, for the purpose of receiving invitations from states, cities, or towns, and shall prepare a report which shall be presented to the Conference on the following morning. The vote on the report of the committee shall be taken by ballot, and every member of the Conference shall have the right to cast his ballot for the place of his choice, provided that no invitation shall be accepted which does not receive a majority of all the ballots cast; and provided, further, that the place of meeting selected may be changed by the Executive Committee, if satisfactory local arrangements cannot be made.

IV. Duties of Officers.

The President shall be chairman, *ex-officio,* of the Executive Committee, and shall have the supervision of the work of the several committees in preparing for the meeting of the Conference. He shall have authority to accept resignations and to fill vacancies in the list of officers and chairmen of committees, and to fill vacancies in, and add to the numbers of, any committee except the Executive Committee.

The General Secretary shall be *ex-officio* Secretary of the Executive Committee, and Chairman of the Committee on Reports from the States. He shall conduct the correspondence of the Conference with officers, committees, and others, under the direction of the President. He shall have charge of the distribution of all announcements and programmes, and shall direct the work of the Secretaries and be responsible for the correctness of the roll of members. He shall be the custodian of the unsold copies of the reports of the Proceedings, receive all orders for the same, and direct their distribution.

He shall receive all membership fees and proceeds of sales of the reports of the Proceedings, and pay the same promptly to the Treasurer. He shall receive compensation for his services and an allowance for clerk hire and other expenses, the amount and time of payment of which shall be fixed by the Executive Committee from time to time.

The Treasurer shall receive and disburse all moneys of the Conference, all disbursements to be made only upon order of the General Secretary, approved by the President or by some member of the Executive Committee, to be named by the President.

The Official Reporter and Editor shall report and edit the Proceedings of the Conference. The President of the retiring Conference and the Official Editor and the General Secretary shall constitute a Publication Committee, and the work of editing shall be under the direction of the committee.

The Corresponding Secretaries shall be responsible for the annual reports from their several states. It shall be their duty to secure the attendance of representatives from public and private institutions and societies.

V. The Duties of Committees.

The Executive Committee shall be the President's Advisory Board, and shall hold the powers of the Conference in the interim between the meetings. The Executive Committee may appoint sub-committees to attend to matters of detail.

Meetings of the Executive Committee shall be called by the President of the Conference, and five members shall constitute a quorum, provided that, when the Conference is not in session, three members shall constitute a quorum.

The Local Committee shall make all necessary local arrangements for the meeting, and provide funds for the local expenses, such as hall rent, salary and expenses of the Reporter, and all necessary printing except the Proceedings, in such amount as the Executive Committee may determine.

The President, in consultation with the Chairman of each Standing Committee, shall arrange the programme for the sessions and section meetings, and shall so arrange it as to give opportunity for free discussion; provided that the programme, before final adoption, shall be submitted to the Executive Committee for its approval.

No paper shall be presented to the Conference except through the proper committee, and no paper shall be read in the absence of the writer except by unanimous consent.

VI. Section Meetings.

The Section Meetings are designed for familiar discussion. Not more than one paper shall be read at any Section Meeting, and that paper shall be limited to fifteen minutes. If possible, papers shall be printed and

distributed beforehand, that the entire meeting may be given to discussion. No afternoon meetings shall be inserted in the official programme.

VII. Debates.

In the debates of the Conference, speakers shall be limited to five minutes each, except by unanimous consent, and shall not be allowed to speak twice on any one subject until all others have had an opportunity to be heard.

VIII. Amendments.

These rules shall remain in force from year to year, unless amended; and all additions or amendments shall be submitted to the Executive Committee before being acted on by the Conference.

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I.

President's Address.

THE SOUTH AND THE NORTH EACH BEST FITTED TO SOLVE ITS OWN PROBLEMS.

BY ROBERT W. DE FOREST.

When a southern city, in a distinctly southern state, was chosen as the place of meeting for this year's National Conference of Charities and Correction, a southern gentleman close to public sentiment in the South was asked what subjects should the conference avoid. It was recognized as fundamental that those of us who come from the north and the west to enjoy southern hospitality (no new experience for many of us) should not intrude on questions which our hosts might deem personal or domestic. He replied, "Avoid no subject, if only you deal with it in a national spirit. The time has passed," he said, "when the men of the south and the men of the north hold such relations to each other that they need hesitate to speak their minds with absolute freedom." Therefore we are here without reserve, and with such topics on our program for discussion as child labor, and convict camps, and relief from suffering, for black and white alike. We should bear in mind, however, what some of us, maiden aunts and bachelor uncles, are prone to forget, that it is among the possibilities for parents to know more about bringing up their children and settling their domestic difficulties than we do, and that those who have a particular load to bear may possibly be able to adjust it more satisfactorily than onlookers, who, however vigorously adapted to other burdens, have never felt and never expect to feel that particular weight.

The frank declaration repeated so often by nothern men in the Southern Educational Conference just held at Richmond, that the negro problem is essentially a southern problem and must be solved by the southern people, simply recognizes a truth of

far wider application. The "white man's burden" is different in different environments, and not only must those who do the lifting of the weight to those who stand next to it, but those who stand next to it must be the ones to decide how to carry it. Their neighbors, who usually have troubles of their own, though of a different kind, can best aid by manfully bearing that other part of the common burden which is nearest to them.

I come from New York, the city of the tenements, where people are so crowded together that frequently twenty-four families are living on a lot no larger than twenty-five feet by one hundred; where there are men, women, and children living in over 350,000 dark rooms which have no more light and ventilation than can sift into them through two other rooms that separate them from the outer air. To meet such conditions is our part, and one of our several parts, of this "white man's burden." When I look out of the windows of the train that brings me to Atlanta, that metropolis of the new industrial south, and see, as I pass through southern states, the rows of neat separate cottages in which the working people of your factories are to be housed, I envy you your immunity from this special problem. The conditions of tenement life in northern cities have quite as much claim on your sympathies as your negro conditions have on ours, and may call as loudly for friendly advice, and do concern you as closely politically; but could you, who do not stand next to this weight and have had no experience in handling it, wisely dictate to us how to lift it?

Just so our Pacific states have had their racial problems. We of the north and South know of the Chinaman chiefly as a patient laundryman, and when we see him toiling unceasingly, even in late hours of the night, when the toil of others has ceased, we are apt to think of him only as a useful addition to our insufficient laboring class. His proposed exclusion from the United States came as a distinct shock not only to our sentimental conception of America as a refuge for the weak and oppressed of all nations, but to our practical desire to increase our resources of labor. But we soon realized that the Chinese burden rested on our Pacific slope, and we acquiesced loyally in their method of handling it.

Therefore I am sure that I cannot better voice the attitude of the northern members of this conference toward your special burden — the negro problem — than to quote the words uttered only a few weeks ago in New York by our honored ex-President, Grover Cleveland: "The realization of our hopes for the Negro must, after all, mainly depend, except so far as they rest with the Negroes themselves, upon the sentiment and conduct of the leading and responsible white men of the south, and upon the maintenance of a kindly and helpful feeling on their part toward those in their midst who so much need their aid and encouragement."

You will notice by our program that this is a Conference of Charities and Correction, but do not be misled by this nomenclature; for while we deal with prisons and reformatories, it is only from the point of view of charity toward their unfortunate inmates. With the detection of crime and with that treatment of the criminal which exacts "an eye for an eye, and a tooth for a tooth," this conference has nothing to do. Not so respecting his reclamation. That is a work of love. Therefore this is a conference of charity, and of charity in its original and true sense — love for our fellowmen expressed in action.

And even our word charity needs some definition to separate it from the spurious variety, which is not charity, and to rid it of the tinsel and flimsy decoration that sometimes disguises and even smothers it.

A French statesman, whose name you would all know if I uttered it, recently replied to a lady of my acquaintance when told that her husband was devoting himself to charitable work, "Impossible! Charity! That is something for the ladies." And he meant it, too.

There is a kind of so-called charity which only forms a pleasant excuse for amateur theatricals, or the more continuous performance of monthly meetings over tea and cake. And there is another variety of the same kind that only serves to gratify a social ambition or exploit a personal fad. Nor is such kind of charity any more feminine than masculine in its attractions or in the sex of its votaries.

I remember, as a child, when at church and being recalled during the sermon from a particularly entrancing plan of cam-

paign for my tin soldiers, to which I was devotedly attached, by a startling suggestion from the clergyman. "Suppose," said he, "I should cease speaking, and the thoughts of each one of you should take voice and become audible, what would we hear?"

Suppose (and it is a no more violent supposition) that the real bottom of the heart motives of all of us who are, or are supposed to be engaged in charitable work, were analyzed and audibly voiced; what would be heard?

Nor is this a mere academic suggestion. It is a vitally practical matter, what our motives are. It is practical for us subjectively, because upon the quality of our motive depends the good, or harm it may be, we are doing to ourselves. It is practical for others objectively because upon the quality of that motive ultimately depends the amount of good we may do to them. True, a man who is starving from indolence, or lack of those individual qualities necessary to make him a self-dependent member of society, may be fed and the food will nourish him however selfish or careless be the motive of the giver, but men who are starving for lack of those qualities will not be permanently fed and raised to self-dependence by aught but unselfish and intelligent motives on the part of those who try to help them.

There is a vast quantity of so-called charity, and a large number of our so-called charities, that from lack of unselfish and intelligent motives are not only doing no good, but are doing positive harm, and are doing that harm both to those who pose as givers and to those who are tempted to be recipients.

Brown craves notoriety, and founds some society which he is glad to have called the "Brown Society," to perform some function that he thinks will attract notice. Smith yearns for social success, and gives in directions which will bring him into desirable social relations.

Or, take another and more simple illustration, familiar to all of us. Brown is walking through the streets of one of our large cities — call it Atlanta or New York — and an unknown man, with every appearance of hunger, asks him for money. Brown may be too indolent or too much engrossed in other things to stop and think. He may impulsively give as the easiest way to rid himself of importunity, or he may as impulsively refuse

to give and pass by on the other side. There would be no motive except indolence in such conduct. On the other hand Brown may stop and think, and say to himself, "Here is a chance for me to give myself the pleasurable sensation of helping somebody," and he gives a sum that makes the man stare in surprise, and perhaps secures an audible blessing. I remember once giving liberally to a Syrian who, after inspecting my gift carefully, told me it was enough to secure perpetual prayers for myself and my wife at his home church in Syria, and added that if I would double the amount I would obtain the same chance of salvation for my children, whose future state would otherwise be endangered.

Or, Brown when he stops and thinks, being a calculating man, may say to himself, "What a chance to show my friends what a good-hearted fellow I am," and he takes this wreck of humanity into a neighboring restaurant where some of those friends are gathered, and ostentatiously gives him a full meal.

It may be that Brown has learned some of the rudiments of modern charity, and instead of giving the man money heroically restrains himself and directs him to the nearest bureau of charities and thinks no more about it except to congratulate himself for not being easily "taken in."

But, suppose Brown does think more about it, and realizes that the satisfaction of that man's hunger only helps him for a day, and that there is a to-morrow to be considered, and is thus led to consider some permanent remedy. He seeks to ascertain the cause of this man's misery and the misery of other men in like condition, with a desire, after finding that cause, to remove it for their good, and not merely for his own satisfaction.

In such case Brown has a motive which if audibly voiced would bring no blush to his cheeks, and would be the starting point for charitable action. I say starting point advisedly. If analysis of charitable motive goes no further than to prove the motive to be worthy, it is futile for accomplishment.

But the advantage of analysis is this; that no conscientious man (and most men are conscientious) can stop at this stage of reflection. He will be forced to purify his motives until they command his self-respect, and he will mentally go further and ask himself not the selfish question "What must I do to be saved?"

but "What what must I do to save others?" Nor will he stop there. He will inevitably rise to a further height of perspective and ask himself, "What must I do to save as many others as I can?"

It is a quite pardonable point of view that personal salvation is a worthy motive for good works, though it savors of the mediæval. It permeates the literature, prose, and poetry of most civilized countries. We can trace it in our hymns and sometimes find it in our sermons. Even those who intellectually reject it often subconsciously act on it. I was once counsel in an important will case. A rich woman who was, or, to speak more accurately, called herself a Presbyterian, had utterly ignored her family in her will, and given everything to charities, and to charities accepted as worthy. (The American Bible Society was one of them.) It was proved that she believed her future state dependent on this disposition of her money, and the will was set aside because the judge held this to be a delusion and evidence of unsound mind. Would the ancient prerogative courts held by the bishop, before whom all wills were once proved in England, have ever made a similar decision?

The state of mind to which I would bring every conscientious man and woman who enters with earnest purpose into active life, whatever be his or her calling, is to have them all ask this question: "What must I do to save as many others as I can?" For though it falls to few of us to take up the practice of charity as a profession, it falls to all of us, whatever our path in life, to perform some part of the service which each one of us owes to our fellowmen who are less fortunately situated than we.

To answer this inquiry involves knowledge of different forms of charitable effort, and decision as to what particular form we can wisely undertake to attain the highest usefulness. The choice has to do with our own abilities and possibilities of accomplishment, growing out of our own character and attainments. It has also to do with the needs of the particular place in which our activities must be exercised. What in practice most of us do or try to do is only too often the result of mere chance and not of intelligent decision. The weakest point of our present day charity is that we drift by propinquity, or association, or inclina-

tion, into some form of activity which is trivial and inconsequential. It is just here that analysis of motive will aid us most, and lead us to undertake that which is not only free from taint of selfishness, but promises the highest and largest results.

We are accustomed to bring to most of the important decisions of life not only all our own knowledge and experience, but the knowledge and experience of those friends whose judgment we most value. Why should we be less solicitous to concentrate all our knowledge, and all the knowledge we can gain from others, upon a choice so pregnant in possibilities to ourselves and to our fellowmen. It should not be merely the choice of a line of action which promises some good to some people. It should be choice of that line of action which promises the most good to the largest number. There are only so many hours in each day, and only so many days in each year, and only so many years in each lifetime, at least in this world which we know, and those hours and days and years should be made to bear the greatest fruit. Ignorance, which might only a little while ago have been some excuse, is no excuse to-day, for charity, that is the means of expressing our love for our fellowmen in action, has become a science. Though not an exact science, it to-day has its axioms, and many of its propositions admit of as precise demonstration as those of geometry. It has its literature and its text books. It is beginning to have its schools. It has become a profession. Few of us, to be sure, enlist in the regular army of charity workers. All of us, however, must do our part as volunteers in the common service.

There are many reasons why this lack of deliberate choice and proper discrimination should be the weakest point in modern charity. Ignorance of the fundamental principles of useful social service has been already alluded to. So has lack of proper motive. This ignorance, which existed in so large a measure in the past, and lack of proper motive which continues to exist in the present, have crystalized into permanent form many kinds of past effort which have ceased to have any virtue in them. This is eminently true in older countries and older cities, where charitable effort, once fluid and adaptable, has hardened into rigid forms. It may be that our older charitable societies were wisely established at

the beginning to meet needs which existed under the social conditions under which they were originally formed. It may be that such needs exist now, but the organization formed to meet them has turned or has drifted away from its original purpose. It may be that this organization, still pursuing its original purpose, finds itself in entirely new surroundings or social conditions, to which it is no longer applicable. The particular necessity which it was created to meet may have ceased to exist. It may be that with the advance of knowledge that need can be best met in another and a different way. It might again be that it was not wisely organized, and that the need it was intended to meet existed only in the imagination or caprice, or the personal ambition, of its founders. Or, it may be that it is still doing some good but not the greatest good.

Nor is the harm confined to the particular place in which such a society exists and displays more or less activity, according to the motives and ability of those who in the course of time have come to be its guardians. We are an imitative people. We generalize naturally and easily. We are too prone, especially in our forms of charitable effort, to assume that because a society with a particular kind of an organization, and with certain definite objects, has been established in one locality, another locality, though it may have entirely different social conditions and social needs, should have the same kind of a society. Thus the error, if it be one, repeats itself indefinitely.

Nor would the harm be so great if such societies simply continued to exist and did not draw to themselves the energy and enthusiasm of the community which, except for their existence and misdirection, would have applied itself to higher and more useful purposes.

There is, unfortunately, only a limited amount of self-sacrifice and the public spirit in each community. If this self-sacrifice and public spirit be absorbed in unworthy objects, worthy objects will be neglected. Nor will public spirit survive if what it accomplishes is found to be trivial and insignificant.

It is high time for us who stand at the threshold of this twentieth century of charitable effort, to follow the example of those mariners who have been long groping their way through the

northern fogs, and at last found the opportunity of setting their course by the sun.

Is there not some underlying principle by which we can test the relative usefulness of different forms of charitable effort, when we can exercise our deliberate choice as to where we will take service and which can be applied to charities, old and new? Has not our new science of charity, which is simply another name for the knowledge and experience acquired during centuries of charitable activity, proceeded so far as to be able to point us to such a principle? I think it has. I think that those forms of effort which confine themselves (and this is no narrowing limitation) to helping men to help themselves; to creating and maintaining opportunities — and the broadest possible opportunities — by which men can help themselves, promise the highest and best results. The means adapted may be different with different men, and may be different in different localities, but the underlying principles should always be the same. We may help men even if they do not or will not help themselves, but our help only makes them more dependent. Our help expends itself in a mere prolongation of an existence barren of all future possibilities, and only retards the progress of social evolution. We cannot create life. We can create and continue conditions under which existing life will find opportunity to develop. We cannot make a seed grow, but if the seed contain the germ of life we can plant it where it will grow, and we can make its growth more or less luxuriant, according as we place it under conditions more or less favorable.

Too many forms of charitable effort expend themselves in either vainly trying to create life or to keep it simply existent without the hope of utility or development.

Understand that I would give a broad definition to those forms of effort which help men to help themselves. It would include support during any period of temporary disability, even if it be prolonged, as is often the case of a widow with young children. A full recognition of the principle would make such assistance adequate and prolong it liberally in too many instances in which now, for blind fear of undermining self-dependence, it is given grudgingly or cut off too soon.

There is a special sanction in this conception that our highest duty toward our fellowmen is to create and maintain opportunity for them to avail of if they will, in that it most nearly approaches God's method of dealing with mankind.

God places us in this world and surrounds us with opportunities of which, if we choose, we may avail. He leaves the choice to us. It would have been perfectly possible with Him, as an all-powerful God, to have caused us to embrace every opportunity for good without effort. It was not part of His eternal purposes to do so.

There is, perhaps, another particular in which we might, in our charity, more closely follow God's method. That is in letting a man suffer the consequences of his own choice. It may be hard for the man who has chosen wrongly, but it is a very limited perspective that sees only the unfortunate man and does not extend to the great number of men who have to make the choice, and whose choice is determined by its consequences to another.

Some people's conception of charity is like the little boy's conception of God, who, when his mother told him that a particular act would be a sin which God would not forgive, replied that he thought forgiveness was what God was made for.

It is not my purpose to-night to particularize those forms of charitable effort which best carry out this fundamental principle. I purposely confine myself to expressing the thought and leaving its application to others.

There is, however, one form of effort with which I have special familiarity, and which I intend to suggest as eminently worthy to those who live in the many towns and villages which are growing into cities, and where the need of some organized charitable effort is beginning to be felt, and where thoughtful men of worthy motive are asking themselves what to do. I refer to what is usually termed charity organization. What I say has no special application to the large cities in which charity organization societies already exist, but to those smaller towns, soon, perhaps, to become cities — it may be great cities — which have outgrown that ideal rural relation in the administration of charity, where every neighbor knows his fellow neighbor, and can help him with some knowledge of his character, of his needs,

and of the degree to which any help will be efficacious. Such growing towns reach a point where they find themselves face to face with strangers, of whom they know nothing, existing in such numbers that they can know little of them from such investigation as can be readily made, and with new and puzzling problems of need, with which they have had no experience and of the remedy for which they are in ignorance. In every such community there are usually some kind-hearted men and women who, after vainly endeavoring to deal with these new problems individually, consult together and seek to find some means whereby they can collectively meet these new needs. To such I commend the principles and methods of charity organization societies, not only because of the eminent wisdom of those principles and methods in themselves, but because their adoption will bring them at once into friendly sympathy and helpful relations with groups of men and women similarly situated in other cities, whose problems have a general relation to theirs, and whose experience in dealing with them will be found most helpful and substantial. Moreover, it is a natural foundation on which all kinds of more specialized charitable effort can be afterward built up.

I give this advice with one emphatic caution. They should not blindly adopt all the methods of the charity organization societies they find in other, and particularly in larger cities, because many of these other societies have been established to meet the requirements of communities in which many benevolent agencies already existed, in co-operation with which these charity organization societies were to exercise their functons, and whose resources there was no need of duplicating or increasing. Mere imitation of form might produce an organization ill adapted to carry out the spirit of charity organization in the new city, and might involve multiform and complex activities by no means necessary to its condition.

I might illustrate by particularizing the mooted question whether charity organization societies should or should not obtain funds for material relief and distribute it themselves. In my opinion, this question should be settled according to the resources for such relief which already exist in a given city. If they are already amply supplied the new charity organization society will

not seek to duplicate them. If no such resources exist, it should certainly put itself in a position to obtain them.

And now, speaking more particularly to my fellow members in this conference, we meet together in this bustling city of the new south that seems so little southern except in its generous hospitality and its summer beauty, to renew our friendships, to exchange our experiences, and to learn how to take another step forward in the progress of American charity.

It is pleasant to meet again in such companionship and among such surroundings. We are apt to be in that delightful frame of mind which many of us have experienced, it may be in some vaulted cathedral of the old world, or in the primeval forest of our own land, where the trees arch over us in equal sublimity and equally invite worship. A spirit of calm and peace steals over us, lulling to rest and satisfaction. Let us not yield to such pleasant lethargy. Let us remember that contemplation and communion which do not lead to action have no vital force, and let this conference be remembered not for what may here be said but for the results which may follow its sessions.

II.

Conference Sermon.

THE BETTERMENT OF MAN.

BY REV. CHARLES H. PARKHURST, D. D., NEW YORK CITY.

"And they come to Jesus, and see him that was possessed with the devil, and had the legion, sitting and clothed and in his right mind." Mark 5:15.

It is one of the changes that have crept into the heart of modern Christian thought, to think less exclusively about a heaven that is sometime to be, and more interestedly about acclimatizing so much heaven as is feasible in that particular province of God's universe where we happen to be now.

Of course the material world we are occupying we have to take as it is, and it is a very good world, as would be expected,—so many millions, perhaps, of years having been spent by the Almighty in getting it ready. It is the people themselves who live in it, that are practically the only element we can do anything with, modify in any way, brighten up, set forward. And after all it is people themselves that will have to be relied on to compose the main feature in any heaven here or anywhere else. A man who is a devil or has a devil is in hell wherever he is put. A man or a woman who is an angel is in heaven wherever she is put. Latitude and longitude have little to do with it. Adam, Eve and God made paradise. Adam, Eve and the Serpent made purgatory: the same garden though. So that we are met here in conference not in the interests of tenement reform primarily, but in the interests of tenant reform.

That is the stint that is set us. That is the mission that Christianity has undertaken, to turn earth into heaven by converting men into angels. The task is difficult, but there are no time limits. With the exception of space there is nothing in

the universe so abundant as time; God never hurries, and the enterprise which He has initiated and still directs and inspires will have all the time allowed it that it can reasonably demand.

There is stimulus in the thought of the vast dimensions of the enterprise that we are upon in working for the improvement of the breed, the betterment and ennoblement of man. There is more that is inspiring in doing a little of a great thing than in doing the whole of a little thing, in shaping one stone into the wall of a cathedral that is a thousand years in building, than in putting up an entire shanty. In the former the largeness of the undertaking creates a kind of largeness inside our own fractional share of the undertaking, just as each block in the temple is a kind of epitome of the entire temple. Beside that, working for an object in whose behalf men were laboring four thousand years ago knits us into a grand fellowship of service subtending forty centuries and makes us closely kin with those artisans of humanitarianism that dealt strokes upon the structure of human progress away in the times that have withdrawn into shadow and forgetfulness. We are walking in procession with the heroes of antiquated days and keeping step with prophets and apostles; and are at the same time moving in tread with those unknown and unborn workmen of the generations and ages still in the future, who will be toiling up the heights of a brightening world when our names have been all forgotten and our services faded away into unread history.

There is strong incentive too in the fact that to whiten and sweeten the condition of man is an enterprise so full of large appeal that even Almighty God moved upon his throne in response to the appeal, opened personal communication with the race, and made a man of himself that he might make small gods of us. It is a great thing to carry a burden that God's shoulder is under one end of. Any doing is large doing if it is broad and long enough to include him as a coöperant. But for him to put himself out for the race sets the seal to his admiration for the race. It is an old story to say that God loves men, which he could not do unless they were lovable, but it is another thing and in one sense a greater thing to say that

he respects men, which he could not do if they were not respectable.

The old doctrine that Christ came to save men only because they were so bad, is too limpsy to hold water. It is theologically weak and psychologically intolerable. The vermicular theory that we give expression to when we sing such hymns as, "O What a Worthless Worm am I," does not square with the historic fact of Calvary. God does not die for grubs or echinoderms. Vilifying ourselves is a sorry way of glorifying God, especially as he made us and so in the last analysis is responsible for us. That is thorough Calvinism, of which I am told there is more in the Presbyterian Church South than in the Presbyterian Church North. The anxious interest with which one will seek after a lost sheep will continue in strict ratio with what the sheep will be worth when it is found, be it a quadrupedal or a human sheep that is the object of quest.

Under the circumstances that have brought us together it is worth our while to think a little seriously of the value of the human commodity that the organization here represented has it for its object to devote itself to, and to make all of that its nature allows. If I were to have the re-writing of the Apostles' Creed, after having confessed faith in the three members of the Trinity, I would say something that would be a little pleasant and encouraging about humanity. Of course if there were not so many people there would be less that is embarrassing in trying to admire them. It is hard to esteem anything that there appears to be more of than is quite necessary. You could respect and love anybody if you and he were all there were. There is not a human being on God's footstool, red, white, green or of even more shadowy complexion that you would not put on black for, if you and he made up the entire community and his demise left you absolutely solitary.

But it is a little different matter when the thing you are asked to admire is one that you might like to see less of rather than more of. Our judgments follow the market, the principle of which is that values vary inversely with the supply,—double the number, halve the price. Even what looks to us to be to some extent supernumerary or even rubbish, needs however to

be sorted out by us with some little discrimination. There is an illustration occurring in one of Macaulay's Essays that easily lends itself to this matter when he says, "At Lincoln Cathedral there is a beautiful painted window, which was made by an apprentice out of the pieces of glass which had been rejected and thrown away by his master. It is so far superior to every other in the church that, according to the tradition, the vanquished artist killed himself from mortification." Which means that the finest window in the edifice was made out of material that to an inappreciative and unsympathetic eye was good for nothing and cast out as sheer refuse.

And we must remember that the supreme eulogy that can be spoken upon man consists in the fact that God Himself could become man. That is the central fact in Christian theology. A wonderful thing man must be that God can become man without God himself becoming spoiled by the transformation. After that we ought to handle ourselves and one another with a consideration that is very close on the edge of reverence. After that, human abuse is near cousin to blasphemy. These are points to be emphasized, particularly in the presence of those who are committed to the kind of service that this organization is devoted to. No man can do great work who is not impressed with the magnificence of the material he is working in.

Of course there are specimens of humanity,—sick specimens, crazy specimens, horribly depraved specimens, aborted specimens, specimens that are a prophecy only, with no prospect of fulfillment, that are an awful discouragement. In your discussions together you will have a good deal of this kind of discouragement to encounter. Some have sought relief from embarrassment by claiming that there are creatures that are men anatomically without being such in the biblical intention of the word, that strange type of animal, for example, existing in certain wild portions of the world and known as the pigmy. There are intelligent Christians who would not pray for a pigmy nor suppose that any celestial mansion is being gotten ready for him; and there is room for evangelical doubt there.

But even when you have turned down the pigmies, there is a great deal left that induces thoughtfulness, and with regard to any such questionable residue I want to adduce this principle of judgment and measurement that we shall estimate men, —all those that we agree in calling men, human,—that we should estimate them by the standard of the best, not the poorest. If you want to arrive at the just conception of what residential architecture is you will not make your judgment a quotation from the features of a one-room cabin. If you want to reach a similar conclusion regarding ecclesiastical architecture, you will cite from the arrangement and proportions of such edifices as the cathedrals of Cologne, Milan, York, Chartres, rather than from those of the back-woods chapel or even the white New England meeting-house. In like manner if you want to do justice to the abstract Irishman you will be fairest to him and yourself if you frame your opinion from Burke, O'Connell, Grattan, Sheridan, and pass considerately over the bog-trotter from Tipperary. Or to come nearer home, you will be disposed, I should think, to estimate the abstract negro by judiciously overlooking some seven or eight million black possibilities, and letting your convictions gather about some one or more (and you have him and them) some one or more in whom possibilities have marched on the farthest toward realization.

Propositions like these that I am just now stating will not in a precise way serve you in dealing with the specific problems you have come to Atlanta to consider, and yet in an indirect way they *will* serve you. A wide and generous way of approaching a question is three-quarters of its solution already, and particularly questions that have in them a human element. It takes a great deal of humaneness to deal with humans, and humaneness involves a good deal beside acuteness. Good work is always great work and great work cannot be done in a small way. Results such as you are seeking after here cannot be accomplished by mere experts. There is not an expert mentioned in the Bible. A man with a specialty is always dangerous, except as his specialization keeps its roots well covered in the soil of an all-round appreciation. I would not submit my eye

to the treatment of an oculist whom I did not believe to be thoroughly at home in the body's entire anatomy and physiology. No man can know one thing except by knowing a good many things. You can cleave a stick of timber into lath and each lath be a perfect lath, but you cannot slit knowledge into cognitions and each cognition be a perfect cognition. The very fact that we have two eyes instead of one ought of itself to teach us that the only seeing of any kind that is safe seeing is seeing that is manifold and large.

Yes, and not only manifold and large but with a good deal of heart thrown in. Light has to be warm in order to convert a snow-crystal into a dewdrop. Intellectual brightness has been overdone. There is nothing so brilliant as a day in midwinter, but sap does not begin to stir until the thermometer goes up. Christianity came into the world as a species of summertime wherein acts leave out into beneficence and thoughts blossom into affection. We never accomplish constructive results in a man save as our efforts are strung upon a thread of intention that is affectionate and sympathetic. What we do professionally never enters into the personal life of the individual or the community that we do it to. A reformer who reforms in his *capacity* as a reformer defeats his own purposes: so of a teacher, preacher, humanitarian in any line. Christ would have done nothing toward saving the world if he had been supposed to be working in his *capacity* as a Savior, and would have done nothing as God if he had not been able to forget that he was God.

Hence the way in which in his working he personally concentrated himself upon the individual person he was at the moment affectionately devoting himself to, as in the incident of our text, wherein he gives himself up wholly to the one lunatic he has in hand. He might have made a round-up of all the lunatics in Judea, and have exorcised the entire crowd at a clip, but to him there was no such thing as a crowd. Such collective terms are a mere accommodation to human debility, intellectual or moral. He would never have advertised gospel services for the "masses." The word is not a gospel word. Gospel goes out just as fast as generalization comes in. The angels,

we are told, rejoice over one sinner that repenteth, rejoice over, them, that is, sinner by sinner. The Almighty is not as ambitious as we. Whether in nature or in grace his workings are retail. We aspire to deal at wholesale. You may very well and wisely discuss in conference plans for relieving all the distressed, healing all the sick, improving the condition of all the impoverished, but when it comes down to actual working, to the production of constructive results, it means one victim at a time,—individualization, one man that is up taking hold of one man that is down, the same way in which God clears away snowdrifts by sending a separate sunbeam to tackle each specific snowflake.

This quiet, man-by-man mode of procedure suggests another point rather closely related to it, and that has to do with what we rather ambitiously call "settling the questions" that confront us in all this range of humanitarian endeavor. Rarely if ever do we settle a question. Problems work themselves out and we get the advantage of the performance if we are standing by when the performance is going on. In the *Atlanta Constitution* of March 6th,— a paper by the way which I subscribe to as a well-tempered source of information upon matters of southern interest, — in the *Atlanta Constitution* of March 6th, I say, I read the following paragraph, which had been apparently telegraphed to the paper from Wisconsin: "The initiatory steps for the convention to settle the race question were taken in the senate this morning when Senator Patten presented a joint resolution authorizing and requesting the governor to call governors of other States to appoint ten delegates to a convention to be held in Atlanta, commencing July 4th." Now a small thing that is stupid does not count for much, but a thing so colossally stupid as that is refreshing, and not only refreshing but illuminating.

Questions cannot be pushed to a solution any more than blossoms can be discovered on trees till they come out as the evolution from the trees' interior life. Questions settle themselves as we keep quietly and faithfully at work,—in the best manner we know how,—about the matters and peoples that the questions are relevant to. Historic event moves at its own pace, and even the Solons from Wisconsin or from the entire north,

with the south combined, cannot put event upon a double-quick. We can hoe and harrow and water, but the growing is otherwise provided for. The best work we can any of us ever do is to do exactly the thing,—usually a very inconspicuous thing,—that the present moment calls for, to do to-day what to-day demands, not work out into to-morrow till to-morrow comes. There is a great deal that is illuminating in a present duty discharged, and the light of it creates an ample amount of daytime in which to attend to the duty that comes next. It is like walking with a lantern in a dark night, so long as you continue going the light will keep ahead far enough to show you where to keep on going,—which is much more intelligent than to sit down and discuss the question as to how to get through the darkness that is a mile forward of you.

There are two lines somewhat distinct from one another, and yet mutually supplementary, upon which efforts at amelioration can be prosecuted. One line aims directly to improve people themselves, the other to improve their conditions,—although of course with a reference more or less definite to their *personal* betterment. While it would be a mistake to divorce the two, still we ought to keep distinct in our thought at any rate the differences between the two. Christ's own immediate purpose was to change people themselves, to reconstruct them, to make new men of them. As we would say in theological parlance, his fundamental purpose was regeneration. Everything else was to him subsidiary matter. He did feed some hungry people but that was not his business. He was not here as a caterer. And he did heal a few that were sick, but that was purely a contingency. His object was not to abolish the medical profession. Christianity, when intelligently appreciated, has created physicians, not extinguished them, dignified medicine, not outlawed it. And yet all that he did in spheres of effort like those was a kind of by-play. He labored for effects in the interior man, trusting to such effects to work out into all those secondary issues of health, intelligence, independence and comfort that go to compose a pleasant and handsome life.

An example of Christ's mode of procedure in this respect is afforded by the way he dealt with the unhappy Gadarene re-

ferred to in our text. The fellow is said to have been possessed of a devil,— several of them in fact,— to have made his home in the tombs and the hills, to have gone about unclad, and forever breaking loose from the restraints attempted to be put upon him. Now there are two possible methods of operating upon such a subject, both of them admirable in their way, — one of them to capture the man and put him under sufficient restraint, initial to a process of gradual domestication, and then to take him to the tailor. But the fundamental trouble was not with the man, but with the devil that was in him, and chains are not an antidote to diabolism. Christ did not tie him up nor send him to jail, nor did he order him a suit of clothes: he drove out the evil spirit that was in him, leaving the residuary humanity by itself, and then, as the context indicates, the fellow went and got his own clothes. This is not designed as a protest against eleemosynary habiliments nor against Dorcas Societies, but only as a plea that our prime thought must always be upon that which is fundamental in the man himself, and that efforts for anything less than that are mere makeshift if they have not something that is as basal as that for their ultimate object. As a general principle it is the center that determines the circumference, not the circumference that determines the center. A chained devil is still a devil. A millineried devil is still a devil, and brightening the circumstantial can only imperfectly purify the essential.

An illustration of what is here intended is afforded on a large scale by what has latterly occurred in the history of the emancipated Negroes. It is a matter to be touched considerately and delicately, but the illustration is too valuable a one not to be availed of, and can be so stated as to ruffle the temper neither of those who love the Negro nor of those who only tolerate him. Providentially or as a result of the war,— according as each one may interpret the case,— the slaves were emancipated. Now this was a great event in the history of the colored people. If a man has been in jail even five years, it is a momentous instant for him when the warden slips the bolt and he steps out a free man. But if he was a criminal five minutes before he was set free he was just as much a criminal five

minutes after he had been let out into the fresh air. Moving the bolt re-shaped his *circumstances* but without doing anything to *him,* and the proof of that is that according to prison statistics, inside of six months he is quite probably back in jail again.

This supposed instance of the convict is in principle exactly what occurred in the case of the Blacks. Emancipation pushed the bolt for them; it let them out into the sunshine. There was a great deal of heroism in the course of the war, north and south, but there was not much statesmanship in the construction of a peace, and one of the radical mistakes made was in supposing that altering the colored man's condition altered the colored man, that letting a wolf out of a cage domesticates the wolf, that substituting coat and trousers for swaddling clothes makes of an infant a man, and that emancipation not only relieved the slave of his fetters, but qualified him to be a citizen. I heard Mr. Cleveland state this matter in New York three weeks ago in terms of that strength and appreciation which ordinarily characterize his utterances upon such matters, when he said: "I believe that neither the decree that made the slaves free, nor the enactment that suddenly invested them with the rights of citizenship, any more purged them of their racial and slavery-bred imperfections and deficiencies than it changed the color of their skins."

All the comment that these weighty words of the ex-president require is the course of events during the past thirty years. Change of circumstance is no index of change of character. Constructive work has first of all to be put into personality, not into condition, and it is interesting that the more considerate and sensible members of the emancipated race are coming to recognize that fact, and are being encouraged to recognize it by their more intelligent leaders. In the best sense of the term a right does not become a right by any pure act of legislation, whether state or federal. A genuine prerogative has its grounds in the individual, in his personal qualifications for the exercise of that prerogative. In the long run a man will get all that he earns, not a farthing more nor a farthing less, and when he has earned it, — if there is that in him that makes him able to

earn it,— nothing can permanently keep him out of his earnings. This is a principle that applies equally to all, African or Caucasian, now and everlastingly.

Still we cannot afford to be neglectful of the circumstances of people. Helping their circumstances is sometimes the best way of helping them. We ought to be, to a large degree, the creators of circumstance, but are to a considerable degree also the creatures of circumstance. An improved man will help to secure for him an improved tenement, but an improved tenement will also help to make him an improved man. Even a healthy skin contributes largely to the health of the vitals. A perfectly sound kernel of corn depends for its germination and evolution upon the kind of soil it happens to be dropped into. Some men are tethered by difficulties, some winged with opportunities. Not all men have a fair chance. There are "mute, inglorious Miltons," kept such by never having heard the note that would have quickened in them the genius of song. It is a great thing to be standing close by the track when the train of opportunity goes by. It is a considerable part of our Christian mission to hang about the pool of Bethesda ready to roll in some poor cripple as soon as the angel has come and stirred the waters.

That means helping people that stood behind the door when the privileges were passed around, to a share of what they inadvertently missed. Presumably men are not exactly equal even in their original endowments. We can suppose that Bartholomew was not quite a match for St. Paul and that he could never overtake him in the race whether in this world or the other. Still it is a fair question whether differences in the circumstances and environment we are born *into* do not go as far, at least, in determining who shall be the winner, as differences in the endowments we are born *with*. This ought to make us humble. One kernel of corn happens to fall into the furrow; its companion kernel that grew on the same ear happens to fall into the mill to be ground up. Mr. Roosevelt is President of the United States. A part of that is due to the stuff that is in him, but as much certainly is due to the assassin Czolgosz. That is simply an extreme case, and all the better

therefore for purposes of illustration. A large percentage of people are at disadvantage and no small percentage are put under a tremendously heavy handicap; and the organization that it has been my privilege to address to-day exists primarily for the purpose of relieving handicap, getting the people that are in the rear as near as possible to the front row, minimizing inequalities, encouraging the man that is lame in leg, brain or natural opportunity and that is hypochondriacally jogging on behind.

Darwinism teaches the doctrine of the survival of the fittest, which is the scientific formula for "Devil take the hindermost." Christ steps forward with his gospel, relieves the Devil, and says, "*I* will take the hindermost." He is always with the under dog. That is the genius of Christinaity so far as the matter of humanitarian effort is concerned. To stop with enjoying people that are at our level and that are congenial is pagan. Paganism is very pleasant and comfortable, and is just as pagan as ever it was and more elegant; just as mean and more æsthetic. Christ reached down and pulled up the man that was at the bottom. In his scheme of regard and helpfulness there were no exceptions. He was about the only Christian that ever lived that was not fastidious. We are ready to do almost anything for people that are nice. He was equally ready to do for people that hardly seemed to be nice. He loved to work on vertical lines; we prefer horizontals. The bigger and grander the man the lower he can stoop. The stronger he is the more weakness appeals to him: the purer he is the less afraid he is of being tainted by impurity: the more complete he is the more he is touched by the cry of human incompleteness. The real mother revels in the helplessness of her child, and immerses herself in the inarticulate pain of her infant,—which is as near like God as she knows how to be, who reaches all the way down from his throne and lays his ungloved finger on the decayed flesh of the leper. How many clouds of difficulty and perplexity there are hovering over the civilization of the north and the south that will melt into clear sky when once the air has become thoroughly warmed with the genial and tender light of Christ and his gospel.

III.

Reports from States.

ALABAMA.

JULIA S. TUTWILER.

A very important change in the convict system of Alabama took place at the beginning of the year 1903. The state convicts were taken from the care of the companies to which they had been leased, and put under the care of the state. The companies now buy coal from the state for a price fixed by contract. The pecuniary gain for the state was the principal motive for this change. The result has justified the expectations of the board. The gain for the first quarter of 1903 was $100,000 more than in the preceding. To those who have studied the subject of penology as a science there is little cause for congratulation in this increase, unless the amount is to be expended in measures tending to the reformation of the criminals. However, public opinion in this state is not yet educated to the point of permitting this use of the additional earnings of the convicts. In fact, the condition of the convicts at present under the care of the state is not so favorable to reformation as under the former system, as the night schools for state and county convicts have been suspended. However, it is hoped that this evil will be remedied when the legislature reconvenes in September. The suspension of the night schools was owing to the fact that this change necessitated a new law before any funds could be expended for the night school. The legislature will doubtless pass this law in September, but in the meantime the men are deprived of even this slight alleviation of their miserable condition.

The State Farm — The state farm has been a disastrous experiment. Enormous sums of money have been lost every year in the effort to make it profitable to the state. The head of

the convict bureau holds that failure of the experiment is not due to any inherent impracticability, but to the fact that the land purchased was wholly unsuitable, that at Speigner being very poor; and that on the river so subject to overflow that it has been submerged eight times in the last year and a half.

The Cotton Mill — The cotton mill, built to give employment to the women and boys, was a financial failure and closed some time ago. However, the present board of inspection has rented it to a manufacturing company for $266.66 per month, and has hired to the company the women and boys at $10 per month. The state feeds and clothes these operatives at a cost of about $6 per month, leaving to the state a net gain of $4 per month for each employee. I do not know whether the net gain and hire are sufficient to pay the interest on the investment or not.

The County Convict System continues a great blot on our civilization. It may be described as Napoleon described the constitution of the old German Empire, as a "system of confusion under the protection of Providence." There are really sixty-six systems, since each county decides what shall be done with its convicts. The distinction between state and county convicts is a purely arbitrary one. All convicts whose offenses call for sentences of less than two years are county convicts. The offense may be so slight as to require a sentence of only a few days, but the amount necessary to cover the cost is added — to the limit of the law. There is no doubt that arrests are often made solely for the purpose of increasing the fees of minor officials.

Hundreds of men are serving long terms in the mines for carrying pocket pistols, stealing a ride on the train, fighting, or some other trivial offense.

I quote from the report of the physician of the Board of Inspectors:

"Many county convicts are convicted on the most frivolous charges,— given a sentence of a few days, with a cost bill extending to the very limit of the law. So universal has this practice become in some sections of the State, that it would appear that many of those poor unfortunates are convicted principally

for the fees. I see monthly many who are totally unfit to perform the labor for which they are hired: women, little boys and old men. I have seen little boys dying of tuberculosis and old men sentenced on some frivolous charge, dying of senile debility and begging with their last breath to go home. The inspectors have the power to remove the state convicts when necessary, but not so with the county convict. These are hired by the various counties to the highest bidder per capita, regardless of condition of physical ability."

A remedy should certainly be found for this state of things. If the fee system could be entirely abolished and adequate salaries paid to all officials, it would be a great step in advance. Our county jails continue to destroy the souls and bodies of their inmates.

I quote again from the report of physicians of the Board of Inspectors:

"The condition of many of the jails in Alabama beggars description; prisoners are herded in them like sheep, with no ventilation, no sanitation, no bathing facilities and no change of clothing (although they may be confined for months), reeking with filth and covered with vermin; this with food of the roughest and poorest character not only invites, but produces, disease. This is a mild picture of existing conditions in many of the jails of the state. Those suffering from constitutional and contagious diseases are placed in the same room and cells with the healthy, and I have known strong and able-bodied prisoners placed in jail come out both physical and mental wrecks; in fact, it is no uncommon occurrence to receive a prisoner in the penitentiary who literally brings his death certificate from the jail, and it is further known that prisoners have had executive clemency extended to them because death would have claimed them before they could have reached the penitentiary."

The Reformatory for White Boys has proved a great blessing to the state. The legislature has just appropriated $8,000 per annum for its sustenance for the next four years. Private benevolence is about to erect another dormitory.

I fear that I have not left myself room to say that our poor houses are not a credit to the state.

However, we can take pride in our hospitals for the insane; one at Tuscaloosa for the whites, and one at Mount Vernon for the negroes; and in our schools for the mute and blind. These institutions would do credit to the wealthiest states in the Union.

ALASKA.

SHELDON JACKSON, WASHINGTON, D. C., CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

The fact that we have no territorial legislature and that no laws are enacted for Alaska of any account except in a general way by the United States Congress accounts for the very little provision that has been made for the criminal and defective classes. The insane people from Alaska are sent to the asylum in the State of Washington; also a portion of our criminals are sent to Washington. There is no official action in the district of Alaska of any kind with regard to the work of the Conference. The Presbyterians, Methodists, Baptists, Roman Catholics, Quakers and Norwegian Lutheran denominations have orphanages connected with their various missions, into which are gathered the orphans and waifs of the native population, and are doing an excellent work in fitting them for American citizenship. The Episcopal, Roman Catholic, Presbyterian and Methodist denominations are doing some hospital work in connection with their missions. Regretting to send you so meagre a report, I remain,

Very truly yours,

SHELDON JACKSON,
Representative of Alaska.

CALIFORNIA.

KATHERINE C. FELTON, SAN FRANCISCO, STATE CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

In California the efforts which have been made for five years past to establish a State Board of Charities and Corrections culminated at the last session of the legislature in success, and the

bill was signed by Governor Pardee on the 26th of March. The new law provides for the creation of a non-partisan, unsalaried, advisory board of six members, the governor being the seventh, to serve a term of twelve years. This period will be by limitations of the state constitution cut down to four years, a matter of regret to the friends of the movement who see in it some danger of the entrance of politics.

The Board is purely advisory, and not in any sense a Board of Control. From its supervision there were excluded by amendment, the private institutions receiving state aid (orphanages) and the out-door relief given by the counties.

The appropriation of ten thousand ($10,000.00) dollars per year originally carried by the bill was cut down to six thousand ($6,000.00), and from this is to be paid a salary of two thousand four hundred ($2,400.00) dollars to the secretary.

This bill was not won without an opposition which was exceedingly strenuous. Even after both branches of the legislature had passed it the opponents, who were mainly members of the prison and lunacy commissions, continued to appeal to the governor with the strongest arguments they could muster, up to the last hour allowed to the executive for the signing of bills, while the friends of the measure by no means slept upon their oars. The governor, who was disposed to weigh both sides carefully, had therefore ample opportunity to study the matter intelligently, before his final approval. He has expressed his determination to select a strong board.

After the annual session of the State Conference of Charities and Corrections held in February, 1902, the legislative committee then appointed worked diligently to draft bills for a State Board (as above described), for a Juvenile Court, and for the establishment of permissive probation for older criminals, and all these passed the legislature and have become laws of the state. Three of the largest cities, San Francisco, Los Angeles and Oakland are taking steps to establish the Juvenile Court at once. In San Francisco and Oakland the Associated Charities are active in the matter, offering office advantages, co-operating in raising a salary for the probation officer, etc.

The California Club, a San Francisco organization of women of high standing, took the initiative in the movement to introduce a Juvenile Court bill, and did both pioneer and yeoman service in educating the public and the state legislators in appreciating the necessity for and value of such a law. They continue their interest by co-operating in raising money for the expenses of the probation office.

The Juvenile Court law of California was necessarily modified materially from that of other states to make it conform to the constitution of the state, which is exceedingly specific in all details. For this reason it was impossible to place the Juvenile Court exclusively under the judges of the Superior Court since it was impossible to deprive the lower courts of their original jurisdiction in misdemeanor cases.

Other legislation of importance to the work of Charities and Corrections was the passage and approval of a compulsory education bill, and another bill compelling persons taking infants and young children to board to obtain a license and to accord to the proper officials their right to inspect their premises at any time.

The awakened sentiment in California in favor of progressive and improved methods in organizing charity and in the administration of correctional institutions is shown in the increased support given by the press and the people to the measures mentioned, and by the establishment in the past year in San Francisco of a Charities Endorsement Committee whose members are citizens of the highest standing.

The Charities Endorsement Committee is designed to protect the community both from fraudulent and from inefficient enterprises soliciting in the name of charity, and to set a standard of efficiency below which no endorsed charity shall fall.

The committee stands ready to investigate all charitable organizations applying to it for endorsement and to issue its official card to such as are doing honest and intelligent work.

It asks the charity-giving public to co-operate in making this plan effective by refusing to give to charities not presenting the endorsement card of the committee.

The members of the committee are members of the Merchants' Association, of the Central Council of the Associated Charities, and of the charities at large, and the first two bodies were the originators of the idea and of the plan of organization. The office force of the Associated Charities conducts all the necessary investigations, reporting the results to the Charities Endorsement Committee, which then takes final action.

COLORADO.

C. L. STONAKER, DENVER, STATE CORRESPONDENCE SECRETARY.

During the past year the state charitable and correctional institutions have made admitted progress and there has been advancement in county and private charities.

Through the efforts of the State Board of Charities and its allies and friends, and backed by strong public sentiment, the probation work of juvenile delinquents has made rapid progress, with such excellent results that the legislature, this winter, enthusiastically supported and adopted proposed laws covering the establishment of juvenile courts and providing, in the smaller counties, for a juvenile court work in connection with each county court. Probation officers are to be appointed by the judges and their expenses paid out of the county funds. The county courts have original and exclusive jurisdiction in all charges preferred against juveniles under the age of sixteen, who are to be subject to probation before final commitment. No child, under this law, shall be incarcerated in the common jail, and all suitable safeguards are placed around children for their protection and proper development.

The legislature has been very generous in its appropriations for improvements and enlargements of state institutions, and the year of 1903 opens with all institutions located in permanent quarters, with funds now available for extensive improvements and equipment. The over-flow insane have been cared for in a large private sanitarium in Pueblo, at the expense of the counties, so that all the insane committed by the courts have received prompt medical treatment and kind and considerable care.

The in-coming governor, in his inaugural, recommended the abolishment of the State Board of Charities, State Board of Pardons and the indeterminate sentence law, but the legislature took no active steps in conformity with these recommendations, with the exception that the lower house passed the bill abolishing the State Board of Pardons. At this writing, it is conceded that none of these recommendations of the governor will be accepted by the legislature.

Owing to careful husbanding of the funds of the state and the excessive demands of present institutions, the legislature refused again to consider the establishment of a feeble-minded institution, so long demanded by the State Board of Charities.

The consolidation of the city of Denver with contiguous territory making one city and county administration, will be accomplished this year by the creation of a new charter, to be prepared by a special charter convention elected by the people, and this charter, when completed, is to be ratified by a vote of the people. It is hoped, in the making of this new charter, that proper provision will be made for a department of charities and correction, to cover the charities and correctional institutions of the city and county, which include a very well equipped county hospital, a large and modern county home with a tuberculosis sanitarium on the premises, the out-door relief heretofore granted by the Board of County Commissioners, the former county jail and the municipal lock-up in connection with the police department. Under the juvenile court law, it will be necessary for the authorities in the city of Denver to create and establish a temporary detention home for juveniles under arrest awaiting trial in the county court.

The State Conference of Charities and Corrections, annually held, was this year instrumental in accomplishing much good in increasing the interest in public charities, the meeting being held in Denver during the session of the legislature. One session of the conference was held in the legislative hall and was made very interesting by an exhibit of work by the children from the blind and deaf school.

The private charities are in a healthy condition and there is a strong public sentiment, both local and general, in the state

with reference to all these questions. In all this work, the impress of the State Board of Charities and Correction is plainly evident, and to the continued progress of the work in this state, much credit is due to that board.

A bill providing for civil service was introduced in the legislature, strongly endorsed by the new governor and backed by a strong public sentiment. The professional politicians, however, have managed so to amend the bill as to make its operations questionable in results. But it is conceded that this is an entering wedge and practically makes it evident that the state is committed now to civil service, and at the next session of the legislature we believe that this policy will become operative under a wise and just law.

In private charities, there are two large institutions, the bequests of wealthy citizens, in prospect, after litigation over estates has been finally settled. One is known as the Clayton will bequest, providing for the establishment of an orphanage in the city of Denver, and the other is the Stratton will bequest, providing for a home for aged in Colorado Springs.

The past year saw the final closing of the Brightside School for Boys and the departure from the state of the founder and manager, which had been condemned by the State Board of Charities and Correction, although at the time the board made its arraignment, the institution had a strong local popularity. Its failure was self-evident to the board and in time the supporting public came to realize that fact. At the present time there exist no wild-cat private charities in the state.

CONNECTICUT.

CHARLES P. KELLOGG, WATERBURY, STATE CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

I (*a*).

At the time of writing, the Connecticut Legislature is in active session, and a number of matters concerning the delinquent, defective and dependent classes of the state are under consideration. Among them may be mentioned the following:

A bill introduced to provide for the appointment of probation officers in connection with City, Police, Town and Borough Courts, to have charge of all persons released on suspended sentences and committed to their care. The system proposed is similar to that in vogue in Massachusetts, and there is a fair chance of its being adopted.

An effort is being made for the establishment of juvenile courts, or rather special sessions of the already established courts, for the trial of children's cases. This also has a good chance of being adopted.

An effort was made to repeal the present law which provides for indeterminate sentences to Connecticut State Prison, but the bill was very properly rejected.

A bill was introduced to provide for the parole of life prisoners in the State Prison after serving twenty-five years, but the matter was rejected.

A bill has been introduced to provide for the commitment of children under four years of age to the County Temporary Homes for dependent and neglected children. Children are now committed to these homes only between the ages of four and sixteen years, and a considerable number of children under four years of age are maintained in the various almshouses.

An effort is being made to secure the establishment of a state constabulary or police department to assist in the investigation, detection and prosecution of criminal matters. It is doubtful if this will be adopted.

A bill was introduced providing that the county should pay fifty cents a day to the family of any man committed to a county jail, but the matter was very properly rejected.

The present law forbidding the commitment of boys under ten years of age to the Connecticut School for Boys has been amended so that boys under that age may be committed to the school for jail offenses as well as for state prison crimes.

A bill was introduced to provide a pension of one hundred dollars a year for all worthy adult blind persons, but it failed to become a law.

A bill has been introduced providing that all reputable phy-

sicians shall have equal privileges in hospitals that receive aid from the state.

A bill has been introduced providing that truant boys under twelve years of age may be given to the guardianship of the State Board of Education and by them placed in the Watkins Farm School at Hartford, at a cost to the state of three hundred dollars a year each.

A bill has been introduced providing that crippled dependent children who are now barred out from the County Temporary Homes, may be committed to the Homes for Incurable Children at Newington, a private institution, and there supported at state expense.

I (*b*).

Among new or proposed institutions may be mentioned the following:

Two bills have been introduced in the legislature to provide for state reformatories, one a reformatory for women only and the other a double institution for both men and women, but with separate grounds and buildings. The only opposition to this comes from the sheriffs and county commissioners, who would be affected by reducing the number of inmates in the county jails. There is a fair chance that a reformatory bill may be passed, but the appropriation this year may be only large enough to establish one department.

Bills have been introduced to provide for the establishment of a second State Hospital for the Insane, and also for a State Hospital for the Insane to be managed on Homeopathic principles.

An effort was made to secure the establishment of a State Hospital for Tuberculosis, but was rejected. There is already a hospital for the purpose in Hartford county and one about to be established in New Haven county.

A bill introduced to provide county poor houses to care for the town poor of the smaller towns was rejected.

A bill has been introduced to provide for the establishment of a State Almshouse or State Farm which shall care for the few state paupers that Connecticut has and also provide accommodations for other paupers whom the various towns may wish to send there. It is doubtful, however, if this is favorably reported.

An association has been formed in New Haven county called the New Haven County Anti-Tuberculosis Association. It has already bought a farm in Wallingford for the purpose of establishing a hospital for this disease, and an appropriation of $25,000 to assist in the work has been asked from the legislature.

An appropriation of $20,000 has been favorably reported to assist in the establishment of a City Hospital in Middletown.

II.

In addition to the matters mentioned above, the present needs of Connecticut in regard to institutions and legislation may be mentioned as follows:

The centralized control of county jails by one State Commission of Prisons would be a great step in advance, but there is reason to believe that this will be as slow of accomplishment here as it is in other states owing to the well organized opposition of the county officials.

Better provision might well be made for epileptics, for whom there is now no institution except the State Hospital for the Insane and the School for Feeble-Minded at Lakeville. A small farm colony for this class of dependents would be very useful.

A department in connection with some one of the County Temporary Homes for dependent and neglected children might well be established to receive crippled and deformed children, where they might be kept under the direct charge of the public officials connected with the homes.

Homes for aged men of small means are also greatly needed where worthy men who should not go to almshouses might be received at reasonable entrance fees. There is now only one Protestant home which receives aged men, and the entrance fee there is $1,000. A home for such men supported partly by public and partly by private charity would provide for many worthy cases of this sort.

III.

Public sentiment in Connecticut in regard to charities and corrections is favorable but conservative, not actively vigorous in promoting desirable reforms. The chief measures taken to

stimulate it by the State Board of Charities have been letters to newspaper editors and judges of courts concerning the present reformatory and probation bills, and circulars to ministers in the state on prison Sunday urging them to preach to their congregations on the subject of prison reform. The Connecticut Temperance Union, through its monthly paper and by its prison reform section among young peoples' societies of Christian Endeavor conducts a more or less active campaign in the way of meetings, addresses, etc. More can probably be done to encourage and strengthen public opinion in the state by a more active circulation of literature on the subject and by more frequent meetings and addresses. An annual State Conference of Charities and Corrections would probably be useful also in this direction. The leading newspapers of the state are thoroughly in sympathy with all the contemplated measures for prison reform and advances in similar directions.

DELAWARE.

MRS. EMALEA P. WARNER, WILMINGTON, STATE CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

New or Proposed Legislation.— Local Option, lost; Cigarette Bill, lost; Child Labor Amendment to Factory Inspection Law, lost; City Charter, lost. A Law to Protect Habitual Drunkards, passed. Appropriations; Ferris Iudustrial School for Boys, $5,000; Delaware Iudustrial School for Girls, $3,000; Society Prevention Cruelty to Children, $900; Industrial College for Colored Students, $4,000; Free Library Commission, $700; Public Schools, $20,000; (Increased), $12,000.

New or Proposed Institutions.— State Sanitarium for Consumptives, lost; Hospital for Consumptive Insane (under Management State Hospital for Insane), $12,000; addition to Home for Aged Women, $10,000; restored burned Work Rooms at the New Castle Co. Work House; Dormitory at Colored College, $4,000.

The Present Needs of the State as Regards Institutions and Legislation are:

(1) Better care of Epileptics and other Defectives.

(2) Compulsory Education, with competent and trustworthy truancy officers.

(3) Better non-support law to compel husbands and fathers to support deserted wives and children.

(4) Curfew Law.

(5) Cigarette Law.

The Public Sentiment in behalf of Charitable Work:

A Charity Conference was held November 17 and 18, 1902. Addresses by Jacob A. Riis—well attended; also addresses on Curfew Law, Cigarette Evil and the New Castle County Work House, discussed by Chief Justice Lore, Chief Warden Meserve and other citizens. A broader and more normal spirit of charitable sentiment and activity is constantly increasing, and more effective and co-operative service is being accomplished through the citizens and church bodies, but City, County and State Officials must be frequently interviewed in order to secure successful co-operation.

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.

HENRY B. F. MACFARLAND, WASHINGTON, D. C., CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

1. There is practically no change in conditions, since last report.

(a) No important legislation affecting charities was enacted by Congress at the last session, which was the short session. Only the necessary supply bills were passed. An important bill amending the laws in reference to the commitment, care and treatment of the insane was introduced, but did not receive consideration.

(b) The most important new institution proposed to be established is a municipal hospital for the care of chronic tubercular and convalescent patients. A site has been purchased for this institution and plans have been prepared, but no appropriation has yet been made for buildings. An appropriation was recommended for this purpose by the Board of Charities, and was earnestly urged by the Commissioners of the District of Columbia but it failed. Several large appropriations were made to

private hospitals for buildings and grounds, which will enable them very greatly to increase their capacity. But these institutions will not provide for the tubercular, chronic, or convalescent cases in any considerable number, and the enlargement of these private institutions will not meet the most urgent needs of the community. Appropriations for a municipal almshouse and for an enlargement of the workhouse for males also failed.

2. (a) The most urgent needs for the present are a municipal hospital which will provide accommodations for chronic and convalescent cases and also for tubercular patients, for whom no present provision is available, such of these patients as are received into the hospitals being kept in the common wards with other miscellaneous cases.

(b) A municipal almshouse to provide accommodations for the aged and helpless poor. The present almshouse is ill-adapted for the needs and is on the same grounds with the workhouse, and the inmates are thrown into more or less contact with the prisoners.

(c) Enlargement of the workhouse for males. The present condition is such that as many as from eight to twelve prisoners are confined in a single room.

(d) Provision for the care of epileptic, and adult feeble-minded, persons. No suitable provision is made for this class at present, and the necessity for their care and isolation is great. A few of the more advanced cases of degeneracy among this class are cared for at the hospital for the insane.

3. The public sentiment of the community regarding the work of charities and correction is more intelligent than it was a few years ago, but it is not as active as it ought to be.

The Board of Charities, composed of prominent citizens especially interested in the general philanthropic work of the community, has rendered important service since its creation in July, 1900, by its recommendations on public charities, and especially by informing public opinion, which is potential in the District of Columbia. The Board has proceeded with tact and discretion, as well as with courage and intelligence. It has had to meet the indifference of many charitable people and the opposition of a few who prefer the old order of things, and especially the un-

qualified subsidy method of public aid to private charitable institutions. Nevertheless, suggestions for the improvement of the public charitable system made by the Board of Charities have made a decided impression and have already produced some results. The Secretary of the Board of Charities, Mr. George S. Wilson, well known in the International Conference of Charities and Correction, has been invaluable in his expert service. The members of the Board of Charities are: S. W. Woodward, President; Charles P. Neill, Vice-President; George W. Cook, John Joy Edson, Simon Wolf. They have given much time and effort taken from very busy careers, without any other compensation than the approval of their own conscience and that of the more interested portion of the public which comprehends the value of what they are doing.

There is more progress in the work of the private charities of the community under the leadership of the Associated Charities and the Citizens' Relief Association, the two bodies to which are entrusted the work of relief of such poor persons as are not sufficiently provided for by the various benevolent organizations on which they have a more intimate claim, such as fraternal, patriotic or religious societies.

Summer outings by means of street car rides and short excursions to various points in the surrounding country were given to the poor children and the sick poor during the last summer, and plans are now being considered for the enlargement of this work during the coming summer. Under the direction of the Associated Charities, committees have been formed to carry on the campaign for better housing conditions for the poor and for the prevention of the spread of tuberculosis.

GEORGIA.

DR. T. D. LONGINO, ATLANTA, STATE CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

1. (*a*). The State Prison Commission, in its annual report of October, 1902, renewed its recommendation that the Ohio Parole Law be enacted by the Georgia legislature. The legislature did not act on this suggestion, but there will be a summer session in June.

The Prison Commission and the press have for several years called for the abolition of the custom of hiring misdemeanor convicts to private parties, and public sentiment favors working them on roads. Of 2,221 such criminals, there are 965 worked by private parties, while 1,256 are worked on roads by county authorities. The Supreme Court about the middle of March decided the hiring of misdemeanor convicts to private parties to be illegal. It is hoped this will end the practice, with all its attendant abuses.

The legislature last year re-enacted the contract law by which 2,000 ablebodied felons of the state penitentiary are hired for five years to large firms, such as saw mills, railroad contractors, and coal mines. The state has a strict inspection system and the condition of the felons is much improved since the change in the system effected by the act of 1897.

Some indication of the trend of public sentiment on child labor is seen in the fact that bills restricting it to children over ten years of age were introduced and pressed in three successive legislatures, including the present one, which reconvenes in June of this year. So far these bills, though advocated by many influential people and by the leading papers of Georgia, have failed to pass.

That public sentiment has made itself felt is evidenced by the fact that the cotton mills of Georgia have agreed among themselves to employ no children under twelve years of age, except where they are the children of widowed mothers, and in such cases, not under ten years of age.

Many of the mills are supporting schools for their employes. The Eagle and Phoenix Mill at Columbus has in addition to schools a lecture course and library.

NEW OR PROPOSED INSTITUTIONS.

1. (*b*). A concrete expression of public sentiment is the establishment within the past year of the Fulton County Reformatory for boys four miles from Atlanta, on a farm, under the direction of Mr. T. R. Means, for many years principal of Walker Street Public School, one of the largest in Atlanta.

This institution is the result of many years of agitation in the press and pulpit and of recommendations by judges. It will probably lead to the establishment of similar institutions in other parts of the state.

The Baptist Rescue Mission, established on Decatur street, the Atlanta Bowery, late in 1902, seeks to reform outcasts by giving them work under religious influences.

Superintendent T. O. Powell, of the State Sanitarium (Insane Asylum), reports 2,634 patients with the recovery of 37.43 per cent. of the 724 committed during the year.

He suggests the separation of idiots, senile imbeciles, defectives and decrepits from the insane.

To effect this he recommends the establishment of a reformatory for defectives, and a hospital for inebriates.

An important recommendation of Dr. Powell is the separation of the criminal insane from the innocent patients. The state has within a few miles of the insane asylum a prison farm, where women, boys, and feeble men are kept. Dr. Powell recommends that the criminal insane be transferred to that place. He also recommends a colony for epileptics at some point remote from the insane asylum.

PRESENT NEEDS OF THE STATE INSTITUTIONS.

2. (*a*) The institutions most needed are juvenile reformatories, a State Board of Charities, and in each city a united charities organization.

It might be well to unify the work in kindergartens and industrial schools supported by contribution, in order to give them the benefit of normal instruction similar to that which the teachers of the public schools receive. The best thing that could happen would be to make them a part of the public school system.

PRESENT NEEDS OF THE STATE — LEGISLATION.

2. (b) The present needs of the state are a child labor law, a law to raise the age of consent from ten to sixteen, provision for employing in public work those misdemeanor convicts not now at work on the roads, provision for the reform of juvenile criminals by reformatories instead of committing them to jail,

and a probation system and provision for the separation of the criminal insane from the innocent.

PUBLIC SENTIMENT.

3. Public sentiment in Georgia has always been favorable to charities. The need has been for system and unification. It is estimated that the various organized charities of Atlanta spend $65,000 a year and individual charity, which cannot be measured, would swell the total to a much larger sum. Public sentiment is practically unformed as to the work of the National Conference of Charities and Correction, for the organization, until this year, was almost unknown in the South. Favorable sentiment is growing and is manifested by the interest in the approaching conference.

At present an Atlanta Committee of 120 men and 60 ladies is at work to arouse public sentiment on this subject, and Governor Terrell, at the request of the Atlanta Committee, has appointed committees in one hundred towns, with altogether 600 members.

The Governors of other Southern states and the Mayors of about 300 towns and cities have been requested to appoint local committees and send delegates to the Atlanta Conference. The editors of these towns have been furnished with literature about the Conference and will receive frequent bulletins from the Atlanta headquarters during the next six weeks. The passenger departments of Southern railways will supplement their one-fare rate with the work of local agents in all the towns where the Atlanta Committee is at work. This reaches about 400 towns in twelve states. This interest may be further increased by enlarging the membership of the Association, by the establishment of a State Conference of Charities and Correction, similar to that of Virginia, by the creation of a State Board of Charities, and by the organization of local united charities.

ILLINOIS.

BY HASTINGS H. HART, STATE CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

The Legislature of Illinois has just adjourned and the dust of the strenuous contests of the session has not yet cleared away, so that it is impossible at this writing, to learn the actual results.

Four very important measures touching charities and correction were before this legislature. First, the civil service bills. Two bills were presented, one favored by the Civil Service Reform League and the other prepared with the approval of the governor. The Civil Service Reform League, while preferring its own bill, decided to accept the governor's bill, as embodying the essential points at which they aimed. There was a bitter contest in the legislature. The bill was amended almost beyond recognition. Finally it was made to apply only to the state charitable institutions, excluding the prisons and all other branches of the public service, and a referendum clause was attached, requiring a majority of all votes cast at a general election. This proviso will probably destroy what is left of the law, but the fight will be renewed in 1905.

Second, the Child Labor Bill. This bill provided for an educational test for children working under the age of 16 and provided for an age certificate, based on the school records, to supplement the affidavits of parents which are often false. The bill was bitterly opposed by certain manufacturers who employ children; but it has passed triumphantly, without amendment.

Third, the bill to equip and put in operation the "Rural Home and School for Boys." As Illinois has no reformatory for little boys, the measure was important. Citizens of Chicago had already given over $100,000 to purchase a splendid site at St. Charles. The board of trustees asked for $700,000; the legislature gave $350,000, a liberal and adequate sum.

Third, the bill for an epileptic colony. The legislature of 1899 passed a law authorizing the State Board of Charities to locate such a colony, but the Board of Charities disagreed as to a site. The legislature of 1901 took no action and the legislature

of 1903 followed its example; so that much needed charity goes over another two years.

The legislature decided to make another trial of the state account plan of prison labor and appropriated money therefor.

The appropriations for the current expenses of the state charitable institutions, not including prisons, for the coming two years, amount to about a million and three-quarters annually. Of this amount, about $1,180,000 annually is for the care of the insane; yet we have about 700 insane in county institutions, not including Cook County.

The following is a list of the appropriations for the coming two years:

APPROPRIATIONS FOR STATE CHARITABLE INSTITUTIONS FOR TWO YEARS ENDING JUNE 30, 1905.

Institutions.	Ordinary.	Special.	Total.
Northern Insane Hospital, Elgin...	$370,000	$56,000	$426,000
Eastern Insane Hospital, Kankakee.	744,000	123,500	867,500
Central Insane Hospital, Jacksonville	370,000	74,470	444,470
Western Insane Hospital, Watertown	253,000	167,000	420,000
Southern Insane Hospital, Anna...	275,000	44,300	319,300
Asylum for Incurable Insane, S. Bartonville	270,000	329,500	599,500
Asylum for Insane Criminals, Chester	70,000	4,200	74,200
Total for Insane	$2,352,000	$798,970	$3,150,970
School for the Deaf, Jacksonville.	$220,000	$76,000	$296,000
Institution for the Blind, Jacksonville	110,000	15,800	125,800
Industrial Home for the Blind, Chicago	60,000	64,150	124,150
Feeble-Minded Asylum, Lincoln....	289,000	57,000	346,000
Soldiers' & Sailors' Home, Quincy.	375,000	48,700	423,700
Soldiers' Orphans' Home, Normal.	125,000	39,400	164,400
Soldiers' Widows' Home, Wilmington	36,000	6,240	42,240
Eye and Ear Infirmary, Chicago...	80,300	5,300	85,600
Training School for Girls, Geneva.	80,000	65,200	145,200
St. Charles' Boys' Home, St. Charles	50,000	300,000	350,000
Total for two years.....	$3,777,300	$1,476,760	$5,254,060
Per year	$1,888,650	$738,380	$2,627,030

In the city of Chicago, the most important movement during the year was the organization of the Children's Hospital Association. Heretofore, the hospital accommodations in Chicago for children—especially those suffering from contagious diseases, have been wholly inadequate. In accordance with what is becoming the settled policy in Chicago, before taking any definite action, a meeting was called under the auspices of the Chicago Woman's Club, of those who were interested in hospital work for children. As a result of the meeting a careful investigation was made of the conditions in Chicago and in other cities, and reports were made at a second meeting. The new association will undertake to co-ordinate all of the hospitals in Chicago, for children's work, and to provide additional facilities, preferably, in connection with the existing hospitals, but, if necessary, by building one or more new children's hospitals.

The Chicago Bureau of Charities gains steadily in efficiency and in the public confidence.

INDIANA.

AMOS W. BUTLER, INDIANAPOLIS, STATE CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

The past year has witnessed encouraging progress in the field of charities and correction in Indiana. Various churches, clubs and private societies throughout the state have manifested a gratifying interest in the work, a number of new Boards of County Charities have been appointed and charity organization societies organized, new county institutions have been erected, and the legislature, which has just adjourned, placed a number of valuable laws upon the statute books.

All the state's institutions are now under the management of bi-partisan boards of trustees. This is required in the law governing all but the State Prison, and the Governor in his last appointment on the board of that institution selected a Democrat for the position. The new custodial building for feeble-minded women, at the School for Feeble-Minded Youth, is completed and occupied, seventy-six women having been received. The operations of the indeterminate sentence and parole laws continue to show good results. In the five and one-half years end-

ing October 31, 1902, 1,927 men were released on parole from the Indiana Reformatory and the State Prison, and but 363, or less than 19 per cent., have been reported as unsatisfactory. Under the compulsory education law, 24,784 children were brought into school during the past year, as the direct result of the efforts of truant officers. The total expense for officers and supplies for poor children was $36.745,80. Generally speaking, this law is upheld both by the courts and by public sentiment. Reports from the county orphans' homes and poor asylums indicate a decrease of 135 in the number of children in those institutions on October 31, 1902, as compared with the number present one year ago. Increased activity on the part of the orphans' homes associations in placing children in families and greater results accomplished by the agents of the Board of State Charities, as well as more care in admitting children to public support have, it is felt, brought about this condition. Since it was created April 1, 1897, the State Agency department of the Board of State Charities has placed 1,122 children in family homes, and 811 of these remain off public support. On October 31, 1902, there were 4,712 children under the supervision of this department — 1,565 in orphans' homes, 54 in poor asylums, and 3,093 in family homes subject to visitation. The census of the ninety-two county poor asylums in Indiana August 31, 1902, showed a population of 3,046, a reduction of 45 in the number present on the same day of the preceding year. Of these inmates, 65 per cent. were males and 35 per cent. females. Nearly one-third of these are feeble-minded, and about one-sixth are insane.

Beginning with November 1, 1901, the Board of State Charities has received a monthly report from each county jail in the state, giving the name, age, color, sex, birthplace, cause of admission, etc., of every person received into the institution. As was expected, these reports contain some interesting facts, particularly with reference to the number of persons received for vagrancy and intoxication. The drunkards and tramps constitute half the jail population. Of the 30,797 persons received during the year ending October 31, 1902, 4,101 were tramps and 11,364 were imprisoned because of drunkenness.

On October 31, 1902, there were present in the thirteen state institutions 8,719 inmates. At the beginning of the year there were present in these institutions, in round numbers, 8,500 inmates, and during the year 2,500 others were received, making a total of 11,000 cared for within the twelve months, the daily attendance having averaged 8,567. Every person received during the year cost the state an average of $153, ranging from $276.40 at the Institution for the Blind, where the expenses of administration and supplies are necessarily high, to $122.13 at the Indiana Boys' School. The reports show that the state is annually receiving into its care more of its defective and dependent citizens, and that the number of criminals and incorrigibles sentenced to state institutions is decreasing.

The Eleventh Annual State Conference was held at Indianapolis November 17-19, 1902. Never before has there been such an interest in our state in a gathering for the consideration of the questions of charity. There has never been such an attendance at any preceding conference. The interest taken in this meeting by societies, clubs and churches was unprecedented and exceedingly gratifying. Several distinguished visitors from abroad were present. Alexander Johnson, Superintendent of the School for Feeble-Minded Youth, was selected as the President of the next Conference, which it was decided should meet at Fort Wayne next fall.

Mr. Alvin T. Hert, who for more than five years has rendered efficient service as Superintendent of the Indiana Reformatory, resigned December 1, 1902. Mr. Joseph P. Byers, for some twelve years Secretary of the Board of State Charities of Ohio, was chosen to succeed him. The charity workers of this state welcome Mr. Byers and offer him their best wishes and encouragement.

There were passed by the legislature of 1903 and approved by the Governor twenty acts relating to public charities. The two houses also passed a concurrent resolution, providing for the appointment of a commission, consisting of two hold-over senators and two representatives, to consider the question of provision for epileptics. Of these twenty-one measures which became laws, sixteen were either recommended or endorsed by the Board

of State Charities. It is worthy of note that eleven of the new laws have to do with the care of children. One of these provides for the probation system in every county in the state, and establishes a juvenile court in all counties having a population of 50,000 or more. In Marion county, containing the city of Indianapolis, this is to be a separate court, but in the other six counties in the state affected by the law, it is to be a part of the Circuit Court. An important feature of this law prohibits sending any child under the age of fourteen years to a jail or police station. The Board of State Charities is given supervision of all institutions, public or private, devoted to the care of dependent, neglected and orphan children, and hereafter no association having as its object the care of such children may be incorporated without the approval of that board.

Another important measure provides for the separation of the Girls' Industrial School from the Womens' Prison, and a new institution for the girls on the cottage plan is to be erected on a farm within ten miles of Indianapolis. The law regulating commitments to this institution is amended by the omission of that clause which has heretofore permitted judges to send homeless and orphan girls to the Industrial School. An agent is to be appointed to find homes for the inmates of the School and women paroled from the prison, and to visit those so placed. The Soldiers' and Sailors' Orphans' Home was also given authority to appoint an agent to find homes for the children of that institution.

The name of the Reform School for Boys was changed to "The Indiana Boys' School." Hereafter boys under the age of sixteen, who are convicted of crime, are to be sentenced to the custody of the Board of Managers of the School. The Board of Managers is also given the power to transfer to the Reformatory boys who are over seventeen years of age and who have been convicted of crime, if their presence in the School is detrimental to its welfare.

The grounds and buildings used by the Institution for the Deaf and Dumb are to be sold, and a new institution erected on a farm within Marion county.

Seven bills on the subject of convict labor were introduced, but only two passed. One of these amends the law of 1899, which provided that practically one-half of the convicts in the State Prison could be employed on contracts, all contracts to expire October 1, 1904. The 1903 amendment extends this limit to October 1, 1910. The other successful measure on this subject provides for the appointment of a commission, consisting of the Warden of the State Prison, the Superintendent of the Reformatory, and the Secretary of the Board of State Charities, ex-officio, and three other persons to be appointed by the Governor, whose duty it shall be to investigate jail and workhouse conditions and prison labor generally, for the purpose of formulating a practical and comprehensive plan for the solution of these problems.

Through other new laws, a Board of Pardons is created; the sale of intoxicating liquor within a mile of a Soldiers' Home or military post is prohibited; the benefits of the Soldiers' Home are extended to the widows and wives of soldiers and sailors of the Spanish-American War and the Philippine insurrection; and the part of the Reformatory law providing for the removal of the Board of Managers was amended.

BOSTON MEDICAL LIBRARY AUG 29 1910

IOWA.

L. G. KINNE, DES MOINES, STATE CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

Inasmuch as our legislature does not meet until next winter nothing will be done in the way of legislation the present year. The state is in much need of a Reformatory for Women, a Reformatory for Men and an Epileptic Colony. All these have been repeatedly urged by this Board and a bill was passed three years ago creating a Reformatory for Women, but the limitations to age, etc., were such that it has been found impossible to open it. Amendments to the bill were proposed last winter, which if adopted would have enabled us to open this Reformatory, but unfortunately they were not. We regard the necessity for these institutions as great and feel that the state is below her sister states in these respects.

Touching the public sentiment regarding the work of Charities and Corrections in the state, I beg to say that the State Conference of Charities and Corrections meets regularly, but the meetings are not as largely attended as they should be, which from my observation in other states is true everywhere. Much additional work has been done last year in some portions of the state, and there is considerable activity along these lines, and I believe the outlook is now better than it ever has been before.

The last legislature passed an act providing for the sending of inebriates to the hospitals for the insane for care and treatment with certain provisions as to parole. The result of this act has been the gathering in of about 250 of this class of people to the State Hospitals and many of them have been paroled, but nearly 200 are still in the institutions. It is manifest that these Hospitals are no place for this class of people, that their presence is detrimental to the insane and that more or less friction exists and will continue to exist between the two classes of patients. If the policy of the state is to continue to care for inebriates then a separate institution for that purpose is desirable and absolutely necessary. It is too early yet to make any prediction as to what the results of this new legislation will be as to effecting permanent cures. About the most that can be said for it at present is that it retires from circulation for the time being at least a class of people who are absolutely worthless to their friends and indeed a charge upon the whole community.

KANSAS.

FRANK W. BLACKMAR, LAWRENCE, STATE CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

The Legislature of Kansas has just closed and the work accomplished in favor of charitable and penal institutions was much less than the friends of reform had anticipated. They were working for a bill to establish the Juvenile Court and regulate the treatment and control of delinquent children; a bill relating to the control of persons found guilty of criminal offenses; a bill to provide for the indeterminate sentence of persons convicted of

certain felonies, and a bill prohibiting the employment in factories, work shops and mines of persons under twelve years of age, and regulating the employment in other occupations of persons under sixteen years of age.

The Juvenile Court Bill and the Child Labor Bill were passed by the House and killed in the Senate. The Parole Bill was passed in the Senate and killed in the House, while the Indeterminate Sentence Bill became a law. This bill provides that the judge shall not determine the limit or duration of the sentence. The length of time the prisoner serves will be dependent upon his conditions, behavior, etc., as determined by the prison board.

There is a parole law already in existence in the State of Kansas and these two laws working together will mark some advance in the care of delinquents.

A law was passed permitting any school district to establish a manual training department. There is also a branch of the Normal School established for the preparation of teachers for manual training. There was also a law passed regulating truancy in the public schools and making effective the new law on compulsory education. These bear indirectly on charities and corrections as preventatives of crime. The regulations of the State Board of Charities remain as they were. We think that the next Legislature will, in accordance with the law of progress, give us about all we need in Kansas to put the charitable and correctional affairs in first class shape.

The State Conference of Charities and Corrections is preparing for a good year's work and an enthusiastic convention in the fall.

KENTUCKY.

EMMA A. GALLAGHER, LOUISVILLE, STATE CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

1. Of progress made during the year we can point to the awakened interest of a large number of earnest people in their personal endeavor to uplift and encourage the helpless and timid; while at the same time their effort was to rebuke and prevent

mendicity and greed in the various ways they present themselves, be it in the guise of the unjust employer, or the persistent beggar who will not spend his strength or ability in honest toil. Further by ministers' associations and citizens' leagues which have taken shape in formal organizations for united and continuous work for the suppression of crime and truer enforcement of exisiting laws. By the renewed energy of the Board of Children's Guardians which, under its present officers, gives large promise of encouraging results in the welfare of children throughout the State. Then the Kentucky Children's Home Society by its faithful work and thorough organization truly deserves a recent encomium passed upon it, as having become one of the most advanced and effective agencies in its care in placing children and watching over the little ones in their new homes. Our School Board has recently incorporated the Kindergarten system into the public schools. The Consumers' League in its special line of work has become an active and earnest factor for improved conditions surrounding those employed in workshops, etc.; also in its efforts to protect the health of the community at large by strenuously fighting "sweat shop" tendencies.

The National Convention of The Consumers' League was held in Louisville early in March; doubtless this will give greater force to this good work. Also by the work of the Labor Inspector who has visited four hundred factories of the State during the year. In these were found employed 2,556 boys, 1,606 girls. 347 children under age were removed. A distressing state of illiteracy existed in some localities among the children employed. The Central Howard Association has established a branch in Kentucky, having its headquarters in Louisville. Its representative is a very active and competent worker. Her great effort is to lay a firm foundation for the upbuilding of their work, and also to awaken public interest in behalf of worthy ex-prisoners. Success seems to have crowned the work of women's clubs and other societies, which have been mentioned before in reports from Kentucky, in their purpose for the advancement of social order. Such progress gives promise of much future good.

2. (a) The present pressing needs of the State as regards institutions should be met by establishing a home for the care and

treatment of epileptics, also for the adult blind; a home for the aged who are not subjects for the almshouse; more room in the Insane Asylum; a hospital for the treatment of tuberculosis; additions to existing institutions would meet these needs. The jails and almshouses throughout the State should be renovated, in fact most of them should be replaced by new buildings. The managers of these institutions should be capable, conscientious, and intelligent. The government of Kentucky ought not to rest satisfied with present conditions.

(b) The indications are that several bills will be forcibly pressed upon the attention of the next Legislature as follows: to establish children's courts in the cities of the state; to enforce the compulsory education laws, this should include the providing sufficient truant officers to cope with rebellious pupils and parents; to make it a felony for a man to desert his family; providing that during his imprisonment his earnings shall go to the support of his family.

3. Public sentiment as regards charities and correction, though seeming to grow slowly, yet makes steady progress. No great effort has been made in recent years to awaken this sentiment. The creation of a State Board of Charities is needed to stimulate public sentiment. Also there should be charity organization societies in more of our cities to aid in disseminating knowledge, and guide activities along the lines of Charities and Correction.

LOUISIANA.

MICHEL HEYMANN, NEW ORLEANS, STATE CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

No session of our Legislature this year.

The following bills were passed:

(1) Juvenile Court Bill; (2) Recreant Husband Bill; (3) Bill Grading Misdemeanors and Minor Offenses.

Bills rejected: (1) Bill for Creation of a State Board of Charities; (2) Bills providing that sentences in Criminal Cases to imprisonment in the Parish Jail, or to imprisonment without qualification, should mean imprisonment *with labor;* (3) A bill

requiring that cases of prosecution should be liquidated in money or in labor, or in money and labor.

We have good and ample legislation concerning Child Labor; what we need in addition is a bill creating factory inspectors to have the law applied.

DESTITUTE AND NEGLECTED CHILDREN.

Much good work is done at the present moment by our Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children:

Most waifs are placed in good private families; a splendid man has been imported from New York, and without doubt in a short time, we shall have the same success as in the best states.

Organized charity seems to become better appreciated and more popular, lately, and if we succeed to have a good delegation to Atlanta, our work will improve considerably.

The Kingsley House has been re-organized, and is trying to do the same work, on a small scale, as the Hull House, in Chicago, with every prospect of success.

Prison Reform is progressing; the general public begins to understand the importance of the new methods of dealing with the criminals (reform instead of punishment, or revenge, if possible).

We look forward with much hope to the proceedings of our next legislature, having in view the passage of two very important bills concerning *State Board of Charities* and *Reformatories for Men and Boys.*

DELINQUENT AND DEPENDENT CLASSES.

GROUP OF DELINQUENTS.

State convicts serving sentence in the State Penitentiary —	
White males	158
White females	1
Colored males	994
Colored females	39
Total	1,192
Juvenile Delinquents in the Boys' Reformatory (during the year)	95
House of Good Shepherd (Girls' Reformatory)	64
Total of Juvenile delinquents during the year	159

GROUP OF DEPENDENTS.

Inmates of Shakespeare's Almshouse	123
German Protestant Home	45
Lafon's Old Folks Home (colored)	23
St. Mary's Little Sisters of the Poor	191
Touro Infirmary	28
Total	410

Class 2.

Destitute children in sectarian Orphan Asylums	2,500

Class 3 — The Sick Poor.

In the Charity Hospital of New Orleans —	
Total number of patients during the year (daily average)	
Number of beds	
Outdoor clinics	
Charity Hospital of Shreveport —	
Daily Average of Patients	
Touro Infirmary —	
Total number of patients during the year	1,176
Outdoor clinics	

GROUP OF DEFECTIVES.

Louisiana State Institute for Deaf and Dumb Pupils	134
Louisiana School for the Blind	
Insane patients in the State Asylum at Jackson, La.	
Home for Incurables	

MAINE.

MRS. L. M. N. STEVENS, PORTLAND, STATE CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

There appears to be among the people of Maine a deepening interest in the charities and corrections of the state.

The Invalids' Home, Portland, has during the year erected and moved into a substantial and commodious building.

The proposition to establish a home for the feeble-minded met with a great deal of favor, but the question is not fully de-

cided. It is, however, evident that if adverse action is taken this year, it means only the postponement for two years. At the present time the feeble-minded of Maine are cared for in out of state institutions.

A bill for a reformatory prison for women has been secured and efforts will be continued for the establishment of this institution.

The name of the Maine Reform School for Boys has been changed to State School for Boys. This change meets with general appproval. Money has been appropriated for a new cottage in connection with the State School.

The public sentiment in regard to the work of charities and corrections in Maine was never so good as at present. Appropriations for the support of existing institutions and in some cases to make improvements were granted by the legislature, and there is apparently a desire on behalf of the state to adopt the most approved plans of work for the delinquent and dependent classes.

MARYLAND.

JACOB H. HOLLANDER, PH. D., JOHNS HOPKINS UNIVERSITY, BALTIMORE, STATE CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

In Baltimore city, whose population is nearly a half of that of the state, the federation between the "Association for the Improvement of the Condition of the Poor" and the "Charity Organization Society" referred to in the last annual report, was actually inaugurated on November 1, 1902, when Walter S. Ufford, Ph. D., became General Secretary of both societies. No other serious changes have as yet been made in the management of the societies. It is proposed soon to bring the district officers of both societies together in each district and to have common district record cards. The federation has joint executive and financial committees, the membership of which is composed of five members from each society. The boards of managers of the two societies meet together as one board bi-monthly.

It was found during the winter that there was less distress than usual, and there was no greater demand on the part of the

destitute for coal than heretofore. There was, however, great demand for coal in small quantities at reasonable rates. This was partly met by the sale of coal at stations in different parts of the city by the American Ice Company. There seemed to be at one time danger that the police would receive money for the purchase of coal for free distribution at the station houses. The Board of Police Commissioners, however, checked this movement at the request of the Charity Organization Society, and turned over to the Association for the Improvement of the Condition of the Poor, the St. Vincent de Paul Society and the Hebrew Benevolent Society the money received for the purchase of coal, with the understanding that these several societies would use it for the purchase of coal for destitute families in quarter ton lots to be delivered in their homes.

The Charity Organization Society has held at its central office bi-monthly conferences of volunteers, two from each district, for the study of the care of needy families in their homes. In the northeastern district a special board, composed of doctors and medical students, has been organized. A general committee of colored people has been formed to look after colored cases of need, under the direction of the society.

The supervisors of city charities have made arrangements with the infant asylums of the city to board out a certain number of infants in homes for nursing. It is hoped that this will considerably reduce the infant mortality. They have inaugurated in the southern part of the city, where the general dispensary, long aided by public money, was under private management and wholly unsatisfactory, a city medical agency which is entirely under their own control. Two physicians are in charge; one a man and the other a woman. Only such cases are treated as are in destitute circumstances. Cases which can be referred to excellent dispensaries, such as the Johns Hopkins Hospital, are sent there. The aim of the agency is to make a thorough diagnosis in all cases and to visit at their homes such persons as can not come to the dispensary.

In pursuance of legislation enacted at the last session of the State Legislature, the Governor of Maryland appointed in June, 1902, a Tuberculosis Commission of five members to investigate

the situation in regard to tuberculosis in Maryland and to report to the next legislature in 1903. The Commission is now engaged in making investigation as to the number of cases and as to their physical and economic condition.

The magistrate for juvenile cases, who has been in office for less than a year, has done much good by basing his treatment of youthful offenders on careful inquiry into their circumstances and characteristics. The entire time of a very competent woman, and some of the time of a young man as assistant, have been provided by citizens interested in the work of inquiry and probation. The most difficult part of probation work is with the colored boys, some of whom know little of any family life.

Mr. Henry Walters has recently volunteered to give $15,000 for the enlargement of the first of the series of indoor baths established through his munificence. The Free Public Bath Commission will be enabled by Mr. Walters' gift to double the capacity of that bath house. The report of the commission shows that there has been a steadily increasing patronage in the use not only of this bath, but also of the second one located in another section, over that of the corresponding period of the previous year. A third public bath is soon to be established at an estimated cost of $25,000, which will make a total of $92,000 contributed by Mr. Walters for this much needed form of philanthropy. The establishment and maintenance of these indoor public baths furnishes a good illustration of co-operation which may exist between private charity and the municipal authorities. In this instance, the original cost of plant is borne by Mr. Walters, while the operating expenses are met by the city. The net cost of maintenance for each of the indoor public baths is in the neighborhood of $3,500.

The work at the Lawrence House Settlement has been given new life by the engagement of Miss Alice E. Robbins as Resident Head Worker, and the election of Mr. Robert Garrett as President. Miss Robbins has had much experience in settlement work in London and New York.

The movement for public play grounds has made much headway during the last year. The Park Board is now arranging for athletic grounds in all the parks that do not have them already.

There has been some further agitation in the direction of a union among the Hebrew charities of the city, but no tangible results have followed. In June, 1902, twelve attendance officers were appointed by the school board to put into operation the provisions of the school attendance law passed by the last legislature. Under the auspices of Typographical Union No. 12, one of the most substantial labor organizations of the city, an interesting course of monthly lectures on economic questions has been given by experts before large audiences of trade unionists and others.

The Eleventh Annual Report of the Bureau of Statistics and Information contains interesting studies of the cost of living, wages, strikes, labor organizations, sweat shops, state free employment agency, etc. A recent act for the inspection and regulation of sweat shops has been declared unconstitutional by the lower court and an appeal is now pending in the Court of Appeals.

MASSACHUSETTS.

BY JOSEPH LEE, BOSTON, STATE CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

Insanity.

The most important action that our legislature has taken during the last two sessions in matters of charity and correction, has been in the appropriations made for the care of the insane. The State Board of Insanity has amply justified its creation (in 1899) by introducing order into the state's provision of the additional accommodations needed for this class of dependents, whose numbers are now increasing at the rate of about 400 a year, the total being at present about 1800 ahead of existing accommodations (that being the number of beds in our insane hospitals made up every day in corridors and day-rooms.) The Board's policy may be described as a substitution of growth upon a deliberate plan for our previous custom of habitual niggardliness — based upon an ostrich-like ignoring of the facts — tempered by spasms of extravagance whenever the facts became too pressing to be ignored. The Board's plan has been to enlarge our existing hospitals — already too big to retain any of the virtues of the small hospital — up to their maximum efficiency, at the same time differentiat-

ing their work so that each of them shall in effect combine, under a single medical superintendent and board of trustees, three different institutions:

1. A small hospital for curable cases, containing fifty to one hundred patients, in care of a thoroughly competent specialist. The board estimates that probably not more than seven per cent. of our insane now in the state's care, and not more than 400 in all, belong to this class.

2. An asylum for the chronic and infirm cases requiring custodial care (for which purpose our present institutions are well adapted).

3. A colony in which the quiet, comfortable and able-bodied persons can be cared for in one-story cottage homes, where they can live a normal life and can be taught simple industries. The Worcester Hospital has already purchased 800 acres; three other hospitals are developing colonies, and a fourth desires to do so. The state has started a new colony for which 1600 acres have been bought, and on which twenty persons have been boarded in a remodelled farm house since its opening, October, 1902.

Toward the carrying out of the above plan about $640,000 were appropriated in 1902, of which $250,000 was for repairs and administration purposes, and the rest was for new buildings and enlargements, including a number of separate homes for nurses, and making provision for an additional 560 patients. The appropriation asked for in 1903 is one million dollars, this large increase being due in great part to the approaching state care of the 900 insane now in almshouses, provided for by the law of 1900, and taking effect January 1, 1904. Of this million dollars, $654,000 will go toward the necessary enlargement, and will provide for about 1,100 patients, of whom about 400 will comes from almshouses (leaving about 500 still to be removed), and the remaining 700 will be patients now cared for in temporary beds in the different hospitals.

The board's report that is just coming out includes the suggestion of having a receiving hospital to which patients may come without commitment, and which may serve a preventive purpose.

There is as yet no adequate provision for the feeble-minded, there being probably one thousand of these needing care and at present outside of institutions, but the plans upon which the Massachusetts School for the Feeble-minded are being enlarged will eventually take in all of these. About 380 additional have been provided for in the last three years.

There will be an attempt on the part of the city of Boston this year to put an end to the anomaly, which its own representatives insisted upon creating in 1900, under which Boston pays her full share for the care of all the insane by the state, and then also pays over again for the care of such of its own insane (about half) as are boarded in state institutions.

Correction.

There has been no important legislation, but it is worth noting that the Superior Court in the various counties has greatly extended and developed its probation work, the judges having appointed many more probation officers and made much more use of them. (Our Massachusetts probation system applies to all offenses other than those punishable by imprisonment for life.) The lower courts also are making increased use of probation.

The most important piece of legislation sought has been the establishment of an intermediate reformatory for boys too tough for our reform school (The Lyman School for Boys), and not quite tough enough to send to the Concord Reformatory. This measure, now being brought forward by the Massachusetts Prison Association and supported by the Civic League, was recommended in 1897 by the commission appointed by Governor Wolcott to study and report upon charitable and reformatory interests and institutions of the commonwealth; and it has had the support of those who have made a special study of the matter. It was last year defeated largely by the influence of Governor Crane. There is a fair chance of its being enacted this year.

Charity.

In charities there has been but little legislation of importance. In 1892 mothers were given the same rights as fathers

to the custody of the person of a minor child under guardianship and in the care of his education. Last year, also, the State Board of Charities introduced a bill giving the board advisory power in regard to plans of new almshouses, but the bill was lost and has not been introduced this year. The board also introduced, in 1891 and 1892, a bill giving it power to visit and inspect private charitable homes and institutions exempted from taxation. The bill was both years unanimously reported by the Charity Committee of the legislature, but met with sudden and mysterious death at the hands of the Committee on Ways and Means. It has been vigorously taken up this year by the Civic League, and there seems a fair chance of its enactment.

There are visible all along the line, signs of a growing tendency to extend and to specialize the state's curative and preventive work. The State Board of Charity, for instance, has recommended appropriations for the purpose of adding new cottages to the Rutland Hospital for Consumptives, and these appropriations the legislature will provide; a petition has been introduced for an investigation to see whether industrial training ought not to be provided for the adult blind; there has been a bill for a new State Home and School for Crippled and Deformed People; also several bills for a parental school for truant girls. In this last named instance, people especially familiar with the care of wayward girls, such as the trustees of the Industrial School (for girls) have opposed the proposed legislation, on the ground that truancy covers a multiude of sins which it is better not to congregate together in a single institution. These three bills have been defeated, but there is still before the legislature a bill for the commitment of truant girls to the State Board of Charity.

In the way of prevention, a bill was passed in 1892, which may be of interest to the reforms of conditions of child labor in New York, transferring the licensing of boot-blacks and of newsboys and other juvenile street traders under the age of fourteen, in the city of Boston, from the Board of Aldermen to the School Committee. Also, an appropriation of $300,000 has finally been made by the Boston City Council for a much needed playground in Ward 9. Mayor Collins has not yet used the appropriation, because the most desired ground has been bonded by some graft-

ers. The latter have also repeated their periodical attack on the unpaid boards, which, since the reform of 1897, have carried on the Boston Juvenile and Pauper Institutions, and have this year included the Bath Department in their onslaught. They will not succeed.

There is, I think, distinctly discernible in this state an increased interest in charitable and reformatory legislation and administration — in what may be called the statesmanship of philanthropy. I think we are getting educated to see the importance of such measures as the progressive elimination from the community of the unfit, as, for instance, by the progressive segregation of the feeble-minded; and that both the workers in charity and the general public are beginning to see that the preventive and curative treatment of the vicious and unfortunate is a matter of public concern, a matter in which it is the business of all good citizens to take at least an intelligent interest. One symptom of this tendency is in the plans already forming for holding a State Convention of Charities and Correction, probably some time next fall.

MICHIGAN.

BY L. C. STORRS, LANSING, CORRESPONDING STATE SECRETARY.

The vote at the November election 1902, to amend the constitution of Michigan so as to empower the legislature to provide by law for the indeterminate sentence of persons convicted of crime, was a favorable one by a majority of over 68,000. A bill which provides for such sentences has been introduced in the Senate, and the prospects that it will be enacted into law are very promising.

A bill providing for the placing on probation persons convicted of crime, and for the appointing of probation officers, has been introduced in the Senate, received favorable report of the judiciary committee, passed the general order, and is now on the order of third reading. All indications point to its passage by the legislature.

The establishment of juvenile courts, with provision for the probation of juvenile offenders, is being attempted with promise of success.

Provision for an Epileptic Colony is being attempted through a bill introduced in the Senate for such purpose. This is a special pet of Governor Bliss, although all the above named proposed legislation received commendation in his message.

The providing for a separate prison for women prisoners is again being attempted, and the effort is receiving very strong and active endorsement.

A bill to amend our prison laws has been introduced into the legislature, which, if passed, will make the Michigan Reformatory what its name implies, and will give the state opportunity for the better classification of convicts.

It is hoped that there will be organized at the Michigan State Prison at Jackson, a central bureau for the receiving and compiling of the histories of all convicts in our own prison by aid of the Bertillon system of identification. A bill for such purpose has been introduced in the House of Representatives, has been reported on favorably by the committee on State Affairs, and is now on the general order with good prospect of its passage.

Effort is again being made to provide for the State care of defective dependent children, through legislative enactment, which promises to be successful.

The action of a legislature is almost as enigmatical as that of a jury; still Michigan has never had a legislature which has given better promise of securing legislation along the above named lines than the present one gives, and adding to this the strong endorsement of such measures by our Governor, Hon. Aaron T. Bliss, gives promise of success to the endeavor.

It is the old story of the need of additional room in State hospitals for the insane, and there seems no desire on the part of the legislature to cut the proposed appropriations for that required. The Michigan Home for the Epileptic and Feeble-Minded is also, because of limited quarters, compelled to refuse large numbers of applicants for admission. Additional room is asked for and will doubtless be provided this institution.

The public sentiment of Michigan as regards the work of Charities and Corrections is strong and active; is manifested in the formation of societies and associations to prosecute the work.

It does not need to be stimulated, but does need wise guidance and supervision.

Michigan has three penal institutions; some prisoners, however, are sent to the Detroit House of Correction. The state has four hospitals for the insane, besides one asylum for criminal insane. There is one county asylum for the insane — Wayne County in which Detroit is situated — which, however, is under strict state supervision. There are also two private asylums; though to these no state patient is committed. An Industrial School for Boys and an Iudustrial Home for Girls care for the juvenile delinquent, the State Public School at Coldwater for the juvenile dependent. The blind and the deaf are maintained and receive mental and manual training by the state at a separate institution for each.

MINNESOTA.

W. ALMONT GATES, ST. PAUL, STATE CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

The State Board of Control, which assumed the management of the state institutions on August 1, 1901, has made a report covering the first year of its work. The board states that the inmates of every institution have been as well fed, clothed and cared for as heretofore, and that the amount saved to the state over the previous year on a per capita basis is $105,615.85. This amount has been largely saved by the purchase of supplies in large quantities upon competitive bids. As a result much less has been purchased in the towns where the institutions are located and much more in other towns of the state. Less was purchased outside of the state than in the previous year. Instead of running the institutions for the benefit of the institution towns, they have been run for the benefit of the institutions themselves and incidentally for the benefit of the state.

The average number of inmates has increased in every institution save two, the net increase being 216.

The legislature is now in session and, while many bills are pending before it, very few laws have been enacted.

A bill to take the State University, the five normal schools, the school for the deaf, the school for the blind and the school

for dependent children from the management of the Board of Control has been defeated. At present the Board of Control has only the financial management of these institutions, the old boards being retained for the educational management.

A bill is pending, which if enacted into law will require the counties to pay at the rate of seventy-eight dollars per year toward the maintenance of inmates committed from the county to the hospitals or asylums for the insane and the school for feeble-minded, that being approximately one-half the cost of maintenance. The counties may recover the amount so paid by them from the property of the inmate when he has property, or from the relatives responsible for his care, when they are financially responsible. At present the state bears the whole cost of caring for the insane and the whole cost in the school for feeble-minded, save a small sum for clothing. The present laws have been abused by the committing to the care of the state numerous cases who merely require care and attention in their own families, or who otherwise might become a charge upon the county.

The number of mere custodial cases has become so large that there is not sufficient room in our insane hospitals to treat properly those who could be benefited by treatment. More rigid commitment laws are proposed and greater powers of discharge given the Board, and also the power to hire chronic cases boarded out in families near the hospitals where they can still be under the observation of the hospital authorities.

Another bill provides that when any person is committed to any state institution the superintendent of such institution be notified and he be required to send a nurse, attendant or guard after such person. During the past year the state counties paid over $75,000 for transportation to state institutions under the present system. This law would be in the interests of economy and humanity.

A bill has passed one house providing that the execution of all capital sentences be by electrocution at the state prison. Another bill would extend the duties of the Prison Agent to the supervision of paroled prisoners as well as discharged prisoners.

Another pending bill proposes that the minimum age of commitment to the State Training School be raised from eight to ten

years and the maximum age be fixed at sixteen, instead of seventeen, years.

Another proposed law would protect children from improper commitment to the Training School by requiring that a particular charge of incorrigibility or vicious conduct be made and satisfactorily proven as in cases of criminal procedure.

The law passed two years ago providing for a separate training school for girls has been held defective. Bills are now pending to establish such training school.

The women of the state are asking for a reformatory for women. The Board of Control have endorsed the proposition and a bill is pending for its establishment. At present we have no place for a woman prisoner except the state prison.

The medical profession generally have asked for a sanitarium for consumptives to be under the management of the Board of Control. A bill appropriating fifty thousand dollars for this purpose has passed one house.

Additional accommodations for the insane must be provided but no additional institutions are necessary for that purpose.

New wings have been built to each of the insane asylums at Anoka and Hastings, increasing the capacity about 125 each or to about 250 total for each of these institutions. The work of the patients on the farms at these institutions during the past year has proved their success. Nearly all the patients perform labor of some kind.

The Board of Control recommends a separate cottage for nurses, a separate cottage or hospital wing for tuberculous cases, and work shops for both men and women, at each of the three hospitals for the insane and school for feeble-minded. A separate hospital for insane criminals is recommended to be built in connection with the state prison.

Two cottages were built last summer at the school for feeble-minded, one for girls, with a capacity of about fifty, and one for boys with a capacity of about thirty.

The board asks for appropriations for the establishment of industrial departments in all state institutions not now having them, in such manner as they may deem best. Industrial work on a small scale has been tried at the insane hospitals and has

met with such success as to warrant the establishment of industrial departments at these institutions.

A very valuable work has been done in the quarterly conferences held by the board with the superintendents of institutions. At these conferences papers on various lines of institution work have been presented by experts and discussed.

Considerable effort has been made to improve the jails of the state. The county jails are many of them very creditable and there are very few bad ones. The city and village jails are not so good. Forty of the latter were condemned during the past year. Two hundred and twelve county, city and village institutions were inspected by representatives of the Board of Control during the year ending July 31, 1902, as compared with fifty-nine for the year previous. Two modern county jails and two modern county poor houses have been built in the state during the past year. The new county jail at St. Paul is now about completed at a cost approximating $250,000. It will be one of the finest in the country, in conveniences, classification and sanitary appliances. It has in reality ten separate and distinct jails, hospitals for men and women, separate strong rooms for detained witnesses and commodious sheriff's quarters. It is four stories in height.

No education or stimulating of public sentiment is undertaken in the state except through the Annual Conference of Charities and Corrections, and its published proceedings. The last conference was attended by an increased number of county commissioners, and the work of the conference has been extended along the lines of county work. Means of prevention rather than methods of administration occupied the attention of this conference.

MISSOURI.

MISS MARY E. PERRY, STATE CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

One of the most important measures passed by the General Assembly was the establishment of Juvenile Courts, in cities of Missouri having a population of one hundred and fifty thousand. The Juvenile Court law will go into immediate effect in St. Louis and Kansas City. The Missouri law is largely a copy

of the Illinois law, and places this court under the jurisdiction of the Circuit Judges, who will appoint the necessary probation officers to make the system effective. The court will take charge of neglected, dependent and delinquent children under 16 years of age. This was a most popular measure, and had the support of many well known citizens of the state. It originated in the Humanity Club, of St. Louis, was approved by the various organizations, and was one of two recommendations made by Governor Dockery in his message to the legislature.

Another of the State Charity Board's recommendations received an almost unanimous vote. It was for boards of county visitors, appointed by the Circuit Judges, to have supervision of all county institutions. These boards will report to the Circuit Judges and to the Charity Board. The appropriation of the State Charity Board was raised to $5,000 for the two years.

The Woman's Christian Temperance Union succeeded, after repeated efforts, in having the state prohibit the sale of cigarettes and cigarette paper to all minors under 18 years of age.

Five of the beautiful modern cottages owned and controlled by the state and located in Southern Missouri, have been completed, and three hundred patients have been transferred from the asylums at Nevada and Fulton, relieving, to a great extent, the over-crowding in those institutions.

Work has continued on the new penitentiary building for women at Jefferson City, and will be completed during the year.

"The Missouri Reform School for Boys" will be known hereafter as the "Missouri Training School for Boys," and as the state and county will now divide the expense of the institution, a large increase in the attendance is to be expected.

An appropriation of $150,000 was given to locate and erect a new State Blind School on the outskirts of the city. Most of the legislative appropriations were very generous this year. The Feeble Minded and Epileptic Colony receiving $164,000; the Deaf and Dumb Institution $187,000, and many of the others in the same proportion.

Many activities have been at work in our state during the last few years for progress and better conditions, and important changes have been effected along all lines, owing largely to the

agitation and preparation for our World's Fair, to be held in St. Louis in 1904, and charities and correction have received attention with the other matters.

The State Charity Board was the pioneer and has been the most persistent in effecting changes in our charitable system. It has done this by enlisting the interest of the press, by placing before the people the exact condition existing in our institutions, passing new laws for prevention and reform, creating new boards, and establishing institutions. Many of the Women's Clubs have been interested in philanthropy, and the Annual State Charity Conference is doing its missionary work.

The Missouri General Assembly adjourned only this week, and there still remain some bills passed by the legislature which will be of interest to the conference, but which have not yet received the signature of the chief executive.

NEBRASKA.

BY A. W. CLARK, OMAHA, STATE CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

I. Progress in Nebraska.

1. Substantial progress has been made during the past year in giving publicity in our state to matters relating to charities and philanthropy. As a result of the agitation of many of the problems the following legislation was proposed and urged at the sessions of the last legislature:

The indeterminate sentence for all prisoners in the state penitentiary; a matron for state penitentiary and matrons for county jails; a bill to abolish the Home for the Friendless and to establish a State Parental School similar to the Minnesota and Michigan systems; a bill to punish deserting husbands; a bill to establish marriage regulations; a bill to prevent the employment of child labor and a bill to raise the age limit from 16 to 18 years for admission into the State Industrial Schools for Boys and Girls.

A very important bill was proposed to create the office of Public Accountant, who should co-operate with the Board of Public Lands and Buildings and with the State Board of Public

Charities, in the work of the administration of all the state institutions. This bill passed the senate but was killed in the house.

Among these measures proposed I am very glad to report that the bill for the punishment of deserting husbands passed both branches of the legislature and has become a law. This will be of great value in Nebraska in preventing families from being broken up and children from becoming public charges.

It is a pleasure to report also that the measure to improve guardianship regulations for children, and the bills to provide matrons for the State Penitentiary and for county jails became laws.

II. Needs in Our State.

1. The first need is a better system of control and management of our state institutions.

Many of the members of the Conference are not aware of the anomalous conditions which have prevailed in Nebraska for many years past. The situation in our state has been peculiar and has differed from all other states. Many of the states have local boards of trustees for the various state institutions. No such boards have existed in Nebraska, unless an exception is made of the two educational institutions for the deaf and blind for which there has been one small advisory board of three members. In other states such as Kansas, Iowa, Wisconsin, Minnesota, Rhode Island, and Illinois, no local boards exist, but they have strong Central Boards of Control. The peculiarity of the situation in Nebraska has been that we do not have local boards and neither do we have a central board of control in the proper sense of that term. Article 5, Section 19, of the Constitution of Nebraska reads: "The Commissioner of Public Lands and Buildings; the Secretary of State; Treasurer and Attorney General shall form a board which shall have general supervision and control of all the buildings, grounds and lands of the state; the State Prisons, Asylums and all other institutions except those for educational purposes." This would seem to be a Board of Control, but these state officials have so many other duties they do not have time to give necessary consideration to the financial problems involved

and much less the social problems involved in the management of the state institutions.

These officials of the state began to make appeals about ten years ago for a change in our system, for the reason that it was impossible for them to protect the tax payers against the dangers of financial losses and to protect the inmates of our state institutions against the dangers of unnecessary suffering and abuse.

When our State Board of Charities was created two years ago no provision was made for establishing local boards and it has developed that there is strong opposition in our state to consider the matter of establishing such boards. No one doubts but there is needed better supervision of the state institutions than has prevailed in the past.

2. There is great need of some plan that will take our state institutions out of politics. They have been in politics from the beginning of our history. Politicians without natural or acquired fitness have many times become superintendents of the state institutions and have squandered the people's money and have sunk the inmates to lower levels by neglect and incompetency.

The peculiar situation in Nebraska seems to make it impossible to take them out of politics and impossible to avoid the dangers of political corruption. I am very glad, however, to mention that the present governor, Hon. J. H. Mickey, has refused to be influenced by partisanship and has adhered steadfastly to civil service methods and has continued superintendents of various institutions where there was evident fitness on their part for the position.

3. There is also great need of economy in the management of our state institutions. Nebraska has pursued the policy of purchasing large quantities of supplies from the local merchants where the various institutions are situated. Local freight has been charged and commissions of the merchants and jobbers have been added to all the purchases, making it necessary for the state to pay prices far in excess of manufacturers' terms. By going into the open market the state could easily save one hundred thousand dollars annually.

4. There is also need of better treatment of the inmates in many of our institutions. We are behind the age in the care and treatment of the insane. Our buildings are the old prison house structures. We need the Cottage System and strong efforts will be made to secure the introduction of this system by degrees, beginning with the re-building of the Hospital at Norfolk, which was destroyed by fire nearly two years ago.

Important changes in the administration of the State Penitentiary are greatly needed. The contract system has been exceedingly unsatisfactory and has seemed to prevent all thought and effort in the direction of reformatory work. This system has so emphasized the making of money for the state that many have earnestly advocated that the Penitentiary could and ought to be made self-supporting. In their minds the handling of prisoners is nothing more than an economic problem. We have no desire to do away with prison labor. This we believe is necessary, not only for the sake of economy, but what is of far more importance, it is necessary to reformatory work, but we think the state should have complete control.

There is great need that the Home for the Friendless at Lincoln, be enlarged in plans and methods of work. To accomplish this we believe this institution which is devoted to the care of children should be abolished and that an institution with broad lines of work such as the State Public Schools of Minnesota and Michigan should be established. Our Home for the Friendless scarcely touches the problems of child dependency. It is largely unknown in the various counties of the state and has been little more than a local boarding school for children. Leading private Societies of the State have made provision for the adoption of more than four times as many children, annually, as the State Home. The placing out system is little known in its work and no attempt has been made by the management to study social conditions in our state and to undertake anything in the direction of preventive work.

III. Public Sentiment.

Public sentiment as regards the work of charities and correction in the State has been greatly stimulated during the past

year. This has been accomplished through the State Board of Charities and Correction; The State Conference of Charities; The Women's Club; The Prison Aid Association and through private charitable organizations.

The various systems for the management of State Institutions were quite fully discussed at the State Conference of Charities and Correction last winter, when a new plan was proposed which met the approval of the Conference. This plan in brief is the union of the two systems of a Board of Control and a State Board of Public Charities. It was agreed that this Board should be composed of nine members, three of whom should be paid officers of the Board who should perform the functions and duties of a Board of Control. Six of the members should be non-paid advisory members, who should be the representatives of the people and thus keep the public in close touch with the state institutions. In this way it was thought we would gain the advantages of both boards. The work of visitation, inspection, advice, supervision, etc., would be done by the non-paid members who would give information without bias to the public. In this way public sentiment would be enlightened, the people would be informed as to the internal affairs of the various institutions and the non-paid members would serve as a check on the paid officials. The paid members would purchase supplies, look after improvements on buildings and grounds and give attention to financial details and would do all this in conference with the non-paid members. It appeared to the Conference that in this way the broad problems relating to the good of the wards of the state, the social conditions and problems of poverty and its prevention would be considered and the dangers attending the small Boards of Control would be averted. A strong sentiment was developed in the last legislature in favor of this plan and many are greatly disappointed that the Bill to Create the office of State Accountant failed to pass, because in this way it was thought a beginning could be made in testing the advisability of the above mentioned plan.

The Public Press has been a powerful agency in Nebraska in educating and developing public sentiment on questions relating to charity and philanthropy. All the daily papers have assisted in this and through the Newspaper Union nearly every

county paper has regularly published articles relative to Charity and Correction, which have been furnished by members of the State Board of Charities and others.

NEW HAMPSHIRE.

(MRS.) LILIAN C. STREETER, CONCORD, STATE CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

1. Progress made during the last year: (a) New or proposed legislation; (b) New or proposed institutions — State, county or municipal.

The New Hampshire legislature meets biennially and is now (March 20th) in session:

In the report from New Hampshire presented last year, a brief account was given of the passage of a bill by the legislature of 1901, providing for the establishment of a School for the Feeble-minded Children in New Hampshire, and appropriating thirty thousand dollars therefor. After long deliberation the trustees finally purchased two hundred and forty-seven acres of fine farming land two and one-half miles from the city of Laconia, beautifully situated on a height of land between Lake Opechee and Lake Winnisquam. The land was in good state of cultivation, well wooded, and several good farm buildings were included in the purchase. The larger farm house has been repaired and enlarged for an administration building, another has been arranged as a school house, and still another as a laundry. A new two story brick dormitory to accommodate sixty children has been built.

To accomplish all that was absolutely necessary for the establishment of the School the trustees were obliged to exceed somewhat the sum appropriated. A bill asking that this deficit be made good and asking for an appropriation of $16,000 annually for maintenance; $4,000 for equipment; $12,000 for a school and manual training building, and $20,000 for another dormitory building is before the present legislature, and will probably pass, with the exception of the appropriation for a new dormitory which will be refused.

The School was opened February first, 1903, and already more applications have been received than can be accommodated.

A bill providing for a State Sanatorium for consumptives and appropriating fifty thousand dollars for it, passed both branches of the legislature, but was vetoed by Governor Bachelder. An attempt was made in the House to pass the bill over his veto, but though one hundred and ninety-eight voted to pass it, one hundred and fifty-six voted against it, and the necessary two-thirds not being obtained the governor's veto stands.

Public sentiment is strongly in favor of the Sanatorium and against this action of the governor. Immediately after the veto, a bill was introduced appropriating five thousand dollars annually for the years 1903 and 1904, for the care of indigent consumptive patients in some sanatorium, the beneficiaries to be determined by the State Board of Charities and Correction, who shall make quarterly reports to the governor and council of the number of such patients, the amounts expended and results achieved. This bill has passed the House, will undoubtedly pass the Senate, and it is understood that the Governor favors it.

A bill providing for state care of the indigent insane has passed both Houses and been signed by the Governor. This is one of the most important steps forward in charitable work ever taken in New Hampshire. The State Board of Charities and Correction and State Conference of Charities and Correction have been working for it for years.

The opposition to it in the present legislature arose chiefly from the county commissioners. There are thirty county commissioners in the state, and when they met in convention to consider the subject only one of that number was in favor of state care for the indigent insane. Only the most constant aggressive work procured the passage of this bill, and the State Board feels that a righteous victory has been won. The bill provides that the transfer of patients from the county almshouses to the state hospital shall be begun January first, 1905, and completed January first, 1909.

A bill has been passed appropriating seventy thousand dollars to build additional wings at the State Hospital for the Insane as a beginning of provision for these county patients.

The Board of Charities has also secured the passage of a law increasing the appropriation for the education of the indigent deaf, dumb, and blind children of the state from nine thousand dollars to fourteen thousand dollars a year. This sum will provide for all such children in the state. For several years past we have been obliged to refuse education to a few of these children because the appropriation was not sufficient.

A bill has been passed appropriating nine thousand dollars for the State Industrial School for a new building to be used as a hospital ward. When not in use as a hospital it is hoped that it can be used for the girls, who now have no separate building.

Bills are still pending as follows:

A bill abolishing town settlements and making all paupers county paupers.

A bill providing for the appointment of guardians for minors in certain cases where parents are irresponsible.

A bill closing all State Offices Saturday afternoons.

A bill giving the Board of Charities supervision over the State Prison and State Insane Asylum was defeated in the Senate, and a bill introduced by the State Board making the laws regarding wife desertion more stringent was also defeated.

On November 16th, 1901, at eight o'clock in the morning, the Merrimack County Almshouse burned to the ground. Fortunately no lives were lost. During the past year a new brick almshouse has been built which was formally opened February 20th, 1903. The building in some respects is a model. It is low — only two stories in height — the heating, plumbing and sanitary arrangements are the very best — the rooms are sunny and airy; there are isolated and well arranged hospital wards in both the men's and women's wing and the department to be used as a House of Correction is entirely separate from the pauper departments, in the basement of the men's wing. In some of the county almshouses the prisoners eat at the same board and sleep in the same dormitories as the worthy poor.

2. Present needs of the State as regards legislation and institutions.

There is great need of legislation providing for reform in the

management of the county jails and providing work for the prisoners. A State Reformatory or Workhouse is needed.

A separate building for an Industrial School for Girls, and a Home for the Aged open to any resident of the State. The existing Homes for the Aged are for local beneficiaries, and are all crowded.

There is no Home for Incurables in the State.

3. Public sentiment as regards the work of charities and correction in the State; what has been done to stimulate it; how has it been made manifest, how can it be further increased and strengthened?

Public sentiment is now strongly in favor of the work of the State Board of Charities and Correction, and the annual meetings of the State Conference of Charities and Correction (established in 1899) have done a great deal to stimulate it, and to increase the public knowledge of these subjects. Frequent addresses have been given upon the State Charities throughout the State by the chairman and secretary of the State Board.

The favorable public sentiment has been made manifest by the cordial relations now existing between the State Board and the County Commissioners, by the interest and co-operation of the governor and council, and by the readiness of the legislature to pass bills introduced by the State Board of Charities.

This favorable public sentiment can be further increased and strengthened, only by patient and energetic individual effort, and by public approval of the results of the work of the State Board of Charities.

NEW JERSEY.

WM. H. ALLEN, JERSEY CITY, STATE CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

New Jersey social workers secured from the legislature, which adjourned April 2d, several very important laws pertaining to charities and corrections, namely; Wife Desertion has been made a misdemeanor, which in New Jersey constitutes an extraditable offense; Probation has been extended to police courts; county courts may henceforth hold special session for

the hearing of juveniles, and all police magistrates are authorized to commit children immediately to this special session court, where children are heard separately and may be discharged with or without probation; may be fined or sent to one of the state homes.

The law was amended so that henceforth no charge of crime can be made against a juvenile. Existing procedure has been changed so that wife deserters and parents who neglect their children may be committed to the penitentiary or work house, where now they may be sent only to the county jail.

A women's reformatory commission is authorized to consist of five persons, two of whom are to be women. Our commission is to report to the next legislature; the expenses of the commission are to be paid from the public funds.

Two important measures were defeated; the one provided for a commission to investigate the need and best method of supervising charities and corrections; the other abolishing sheriffs' profits from boarding prisoners in county jails. There is tremendous sentiment throughout the state in favor of both of these measures. Both were recommended by the Governor and both seemed to be on the point of passing, but the effective wire pulling of the sheriffs, clerks and surrogates whose fees were attacked defeated the salary bill and senatorial courtesy defeated the supervision bill. While each house was debating its own board of control bill and just before the state conference gave the whole question a thorough consideration pro and con Governor Murphy sent a message to the legislature recommending the appointment of a commission. The press of the state hailed this recommendation with applause, but the joint resolution providing for a commission was defeated in the Senate. Two reasons were given, one a distrust of the efficacy of commissions, and the other resentment that the Governor should have appeared to point out the defects of a bill which the Senate had seen fit to refer to the committee. The State Charities Aid Association, however, has appointed a committee to report to the next legislature, showing exhaustively the methods and the results in other states and to present a bill incorporating their recommendations for the state of New Jersey. Sentiment is almost unanimously in favor of

some form of supervision. Undoubtedly the next legislature will take definite favorable action.

The Governor's message recommended the substitution of salaries for fees in the offices of the sheriff, surrogate, clerk. These offices now pay handsome incomes, roughly estimated by the Governor to be three times that which would be required to induce competent men to undertake the duties of these offices. "The laborer is worthy of his hire, but one laborer is not worthy the hire of two or three." It was thought that the recommendations would be made a party measure, but influence of the present beneficiaries of the fee system and of their would be successors sufficed to defeat the bill in caucus. Thereupon the friends of better jail administration under the leadership of the State Charities Aid Association, introduced a bill the result of which would be to abolish all profits from the board of prisoners in county jails. It is probably not too much to say that the crusade against county fees has from the first been in the minds of nine-tenths of the citizens of the state based on moral rather than economic ground. It is shocking to the moral sense of the community that political officers should thus grow rich and should distribute corruption even from the savings effected in boarding prisoners at 25 and 50 cents per week. No one has been found who would openly defend the present system. Hundreds of letters were sent to legislators and had this bill been introduced at the beginning of the session it is more than likely that it would have passed with a large majority. As it is, it had 30 of the 31 votes necessary to pass it in the lower house, which will undoubtedly serve to encourage the press and the moral sentiment of the community to demand the passage of the bill by the next legislature. It is expected that the Governor will sign all of the bills passed by the legislature for he has been exceedingly interested in every proposition for the improvement of the state charities and corrections. Workers will enter upon the campaign next year for state supervision and abolishment of sheriffs' fees from boarding prisoners with greater efforts because of the Governor's known interest.

The State Sanitarium for Consumptives has been promoted

and a beautiful site selected in Glen Gardner Township, Hunterdon County. The legislature has appropriated $100,000 for the beginning of the buildings. No other additions of particular consequence have been made, the legislature having refused to authorize the continuance of the work upon the Rahway Reformatory. The State Hospital for the Insane requested a hospital for the convict insane of whom over one hundred are now in among the other insane, but the conservative elements in the legislature have prevailed and have taken a stand against any additional institutions for the present. It is doubtful whether this conservatism can prevent the erection of a reformatory for older girls and women, for the state has been thoroughly aroused to the extravagance and injustice of committing unfortunate women to our county jails. The two state institutions for juvenile delinquents, the State Home for Boys at Jamesburg and the State Home for Girls at Trenton have been the unfortunate subjects of newspaper notoriety during the past year. The embezzlement of trust funds by an officer of the Jamesburg institution could not, however, obscure the sincerity and devotion with which the former superintendent had for years discharged the duties of his office. His successor, the former deputy James Wylde, was given several months as acting superintendent and has since been appointed, which will serve to encourage ambitious deputies and assistants in our other institutions and will at the same time serve to raise the standard of men placed in position of deputy by the boards of managers.

At time of writing there is every indication that the superintendent of the State Home for Girls will be asked to resign at the meeting of the board, April 8th. This institution has never regained the public confidence lost two years ago during the legislative investigation. Its strength has been depending upon the board of managers many of whom have given their time without stint to effecting a change of attitude toward the girls and a change of method in disciplining them. At the present time the public expressions of the board indicate that they realize the importance of having in charge of the institution a superintendent who herself stands for the very best in leadership. More and more the state has come to realize that in such a position is

needed a competent educator. The unfortunate exposure coming on the eve of the change in administration is a lesson to voluntary boards of managers and proves the danger of getting out of touch with those moral elements in the community which they are supposed to represent.

Three measures were passed to protect child workers. One limited the age for both boys and girls to 14 years; another to compel children between 12 and 14 years, when not at work to be in school, and one empowering the Governor to remove the State Factory Inspector for cause. The intention of the last being to enforce a scrupulous performance of duty on the part of the chief inspectors. While some were disappointed that the 16 year limit was not granted, a substantial advance has been made and it remains for the friends of child workers to be vigilant in their study of conditions and earnest in their support of truant officers and inspectors.

NEW YORK.

ROBERT W. HEBBERD, ALBANY, STATE CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

There has been comparatively little change in the management of the State charitable and reformatory institutions during the past year, although some advances have been made within this period. The standard of work of these institutions has generally been high and this standard has been maintained.

Plans have been adopted for the construction of the New York State Hospital for the Treatment of Incipient Pulmonary Tuberculosis at Ray Brook in the Adirondacks, which is considered an ideal site for such an institution, and the preliminary work has been commenced. This Hospital which is designed ultimately to shelter two hundred patients with the necessary officers and employes, marks the first step on the part of the State towards making provision for the treatment of the consumptive.

The Commission appointed by the Legislature of 1902, has selected a farm site of over a thousand acres in Monroe County for the reconstruction on the cottage colony plan of the State Industrial School now located in the heart of the city of Rochester

and necessarily conducted on the congregate plan. It is confidently expected that the present Legislature will make provision for this greatly to be desired change, which has long been urged by the State Board of Charities and the Board of Managers of the School.

Many minor improvements and some extensions have been made at the various State institutions, but those for the care of the feeble-minded, the idiotic and the epileptic are still unable to make adequate provision for these classes of patients who are yet to be found in large numbers in the almshouses.

Much improvement has been shown in the county and municipal charities during the year. This is true of these institutions throughout the entire State, and is especially true of those in the Greater City of New York, where Commissioner Homer Folks, formerly Secretary of the National Conference of Charities and Correction, is showing the possibility of putting good theories into successful practice. Among other changes the Commissioner has established a separate hospital for the treatment of consumptives, which is already showing good results. He has also established a farm colony on Staten Island, (in the Borough of Richmond) where it is hoped to raise a large part of the vegetables used in the institutions of the Charities Department. The tone of the service of the whole Department has been visibly improved under Commissioner Folks' administration.

The Trustees of Bellevue and Allied Hospitals in the City of New York have applied for and hope to secure an appropriation of $3,000,000 to construct the new Bellevue Hospital, which is so greatly needed. The main building of the present Hospital in which more than 23,000 patients are treated annually, was originally erected as an almshouse almost a century ago and is now generally recognized as unsuitable for modern hospital purposes. Plans for a new Harlem Hospital, for which an appropriation of $275,000 has been made, have already been adopted and the work of construction will shortly be commenced.

The almshouses and public hospitals of the smaller cities and in the rural districts of the State are being greatly improved. Hospital facilities are being extended, new and separate laundry plants provided, and bathing and lighting facilities generally re-

constructed and improved. These institutions are regularly inspected by the State Board of Charities, and their improvement is largely due to the continued co-operation of the County Superintendents of the Poor and other poor law officials with the Board.

The work of the private charities of the State, of which there are a thousand, more or less, of considerable prominence, continues to be effective. The Charity Organization Society of the City of New York, whose Tenement House Committee has done such important work, has established a Committee on the Prevention of Tuberculosis whose educational propaganda promises to prove effective in promoting practical measures for the eradication of this disease.

The success of the Children's Court in the Borough of Manhattan in the City of New York has resulted in the enactment of legislation providing for a like court in the Borough of Brooklyn. Measures have also been introduced amending the Penal Code by authorizing the establishment of Children's Courts generally throughout the State, and amending the Code of Criminal Procedure by the provision for a like extension of the probation system which is also to include the cases of children under the age of sixteen years at present omitted from the operations of this general law.

The Legislature of 1903 is still in session, but adjournment is expected shortly before May 1. Much legislation has been proposed affecting the administration of the State and other charitable institutions, but most of it has been of a minor nature, and nothing of a radical character seems likely to be enacted.

The proposition to discontinue the State Reformatory for Women at Bedford and to use the buildings for a state hospital for the insane, which was based on motives of economy and embodied in bills introduced in both branches of the Legislature, met with considerable opposition, and at this date, seems to have been abandoned.

Early in the session many bills were introduced designed to weaken the beneficent tenement house laws applicable to the city of New York and Buffalo, which have been enacted largely through the personal influence of President de Forest of this

Conference, but the opposition to their passage became so widespread and intense that their defeat is now rendered certain. Mr. de Forest, as Tenement House Commisisoner of Greater New York, has, however, caused the introduction of a measure designed to strengthen the law in many respects and to yield certain safe and reasonable concessions in others, which seems likely to meet with practically no opposition, especially as the Governor has given public assurance that it alone will receive his approval.

President William R. Stewart of the State Board of Charities, was at a recent meeting of the Board, elected to that office for the tenth consecutive term, but for personal reasons declined to serve any longer. The Board, however, unanimously resolved that it could not see its way clear to dispense with President Stewart's services and laid his declination on the table for further consideration.

The chief need of the State institutions at present is the extension of the facilities of those which seek to care for the feeble-minded, the idiotic and the epileptic. There are four such institutions in this State, one at Syracuse for the teaching of feeble-minded children; one at Newark for the protection of feeble-minded women of the child bearing age; a third at Rome for the care of low grade idiots; and lastly the Craig Colony at Sonyea, for epileptics. The demands upon all these institutions are much greater than their facilities, and the result is that many feeble-minded, idiotic and epileptic patients are compelled to remain in almshouses or in families where it is impossible to make suitable provision for their care. For many years the almshouses of this State have been slowly evolving from bedlam-like refuges where all sorts and conditions of the poor and vagrant classes were maintained, to homes for the aged and infirm poor, and it is important for this evolution to continue to a successful end. Through various laws the children and the insane have been removed and separately cared for in suitable institutions, and the Poor Law also requires that the feeble-minded shall be likewise cared for, but, unfortunately, the provision for this separate care is lacking, and cannot be supplied until the State makes the necessary appropriations for that purpose. Some progress has been made in this direction, but it has been too slow to be really effect-

ive. The resources of the State Hospitals for the insane are taxed much beyond their facilities and it is the intention of the State authorities to establish a new hospital in Washington County, for which the present Legislature is expected to make an appropriation. The establishment of psycopathic hospitals for the treatment of acute cases of insanity is also under consideration by the State Commission in Lunacy.

The county jail system continues unsatisfactory in New York as elsewhere, but the State Commission of Prisons, which unfortunately has been deprived of the services of its President, Hon. Lispenard Stewart of New York, by resignation, has through visitation and recommendation done much to improve the condition of the jails.

Homes for the aged and hospitals for convalescents are urgently needed to render the private charity system of the State more complete and useful. The Burke Foundation, which through the benevolence of its founder will ultimately have, it is estimated, nearly $4,000,000 for the establishment of convalescent homes should largely meet the latter need in the vicinity of Greater New York.

The homes for children are at present more than ample to meet the demands made upon them. Largely through the operations of the rules of the State Board of Charities and the greater care exercised by committing officers, the number of inmates of these homes is smaller by about two thousand than it has been for some years, and as a matter of fact several of the institutions have either discontinued or limited their work.

NORTH CAROLINA.

MISS DAISY DENSON, RALEIGH, STATE CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

There has been marked advancement in providing for our defective and dependent classes in the last decade. The number cared for and the funds appropriated by the State having almost doubled. It is a record of which we are proud. In the words of the late Secretary of the Board of Public Charities; "From His

Excellency the Governor, down, the State Officers and leaders have manfully stood by the cause of humanity; the noblest feelings that exalt civilization, alike with the soundest policy of the modern State, control their legislation for the public good."

The total number of defectives and dependents reported in State institutions for 1902 were 3,252. Of these, insane treated, 2,094, (579 colored), at a cost of $244,766.95.

Deaf, Dumb and Blind, 655, (colored 192), cost $112,500.

Soldiers' Home for Confederate Veterans, 148 in charge during the year, $13,000 for maintenance.

Oxford Orphan Asylum (white) 247 children, state aid $10,000.

Oxford Orphan Asylum (colored) 108 children, state aid $5,000.

The penitentiary is self-sustaining. Convicts are employed on the state farms and contract work. Remaining November 30th, 1902, 849.

Important improvements during the past year were as follows. The Morganton Hospital for insane has nearly completed a $50,000 building which will soon be occupied.

An annex to the Goldsboro' Hospital for colored insane has been completed at a cost of $21,000, also a carpenter's shop, cost $500.

Deaf and Dumb Institution, Morganton, a system of water works and two additions to the main building, which will give other exits in case of fire and accommodations for 50 more children.

At the Soldiers' Home a $5,000 dormitory has been finished and occupied.

Oxford Orphan Asylum, remodeling of chapel and school rooms, water system perfected, industrial buildings erected, cost $7,000.

Oxford Orphan Asylum for the colored, new barn and stables, and a well sunk.

State farms (worked by convicts,) improved at an expense of $3,400.

Our biennal report gives the following as to our county poor: "There are 1,300 inmates in the Homes. A correct estimate of

those receiving relief otherwise is difficult, but a conservative estimate would be about 3,918, making a total of 5,218 persons supported in whole, or part by public funds, outside of Soldiers' Home, Pension system and the orphanages. The expenditure for the poor cannot be less than $125,000 to $130,000, about ten per cent of county taxes. A feature of this subject which deserves attention is the tendency to seek public aid."

The condition and management of the Homes and jails have improved in the past year to some extent.

There are eleven orphanages; two receive State aid, two are county institutions and seven are maintained by religious denominations and fraternal orders; several of these have added improvements. They provide for 973 children. The Red Men and the Junior Order of American Mechanics are collecting funds for the establishment of two more Homes for destitute children.

We have added two new Hospitals to our number of nine, supported by county and municipal aid and voluntary contributions. The Pittman Sanatorium of Tarboro, a well equipped Hospital erected and furnished at a cost of $20,000, (there is a training school for nurses in connection with it), and the James Walker Memorial Hospital of Wilmington at an expenditure of $100,000.

Broadoaks Sanatorium, the first private hospital for mental and nervous diseases established in the State, has been successfully operated for the past year.

The Old Ladies' Home, maintained by St. Luke's Circle of King's Daughters in this city, deserves commendation. The Sadie Williamson Day Nursery has recently been opened here and bids fair to succeed.

The King's Daughters, the Associated Charities of Wilmington and Goldsboro, and the Humane Society of Charlotte give relief to the destitute, and the W. C. T. U. works diligently for the uplifting of the prison population.

The Legislature of 1903 increased the appropriations for maintenance of the institutions to meet the needs of 450 more wards of the State for whom room will be available upon the completion of the buildings in course of construction. $5,000 was appropriated for water supply for the Central Hospital for

insane; $1,000 for improvements in heating and lighting the department for dangerous insane and $2,400 for repairs at the Soldiers' Home.

A Child Labor Law was passed which shortens the hours of operatives and prevents the employment of children under 12 years of age in factories.

The bill for a Reformatory for Youthful Criminals was reported favorably by the Joint Committee on Penal Institutions, was referred to the Appropriation Committee and failed because the latter decided upon a policy of "no new institutions" on account of a deficit in our Treasury, which was subsequently provided for by a bond issue of $300,000 for a term of ten years. The effort for legislation looking to the introduction of a parole system in North Carolina also failed. It would greatly lighten the onerous and trying responsibility of our Governor in granting pardons, (the power being in his hands alone,) and it would open the door of hope to those who have made failures of their lives. Our State is extremely conservative and jealous of change in the prerogatives of any branch of its Government. The Superintendent of the Western Asylum (Morganton,) asked for a building in which to isolate the tuberculous insane, but this also was postponed. We need a system of classification of prisoners in the jails by which boys can be separated from hardened criminals — legislation to this end and for the establishment of a reformatory and a home for the feeble-minded, will be pressed in the future, as it has been in the past, by the Board of Public Charities and by many other bodies, until we succeed.

There is a widespread public sentiment in favor of the proper support of our charitable institutions. The necessity of a reformatory for youthful criminals is recognized and endorsed by every religious sect and political party, but the educational qualification in the suffrage amendment to our State constitution has given an unprecedented impetus to education and the legislature of 1903 made very large appropriations to public schools and to the colleges which receive State aid. The "education of the masses" is the war cry of the State; a wave of enlightenment is sweeping from seashore to mountain; upon its success depends

our political salvation and the growth of new institutions for defectives, dependents and delinquents is temporarily retarded.

OHIO.

C. M. HUBBARD, CINCINNATI, STATE CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

The Ohio Legislature was not in session this year, hence there is no new legislation to report. But it will be of interest to note the operation of some of the laws enacted a year ago.

The statute providing for the voluntary commitment of patients to the State Hospitals for the Insane has been utilized at every hospital except Longview Hospital at Cincinnati.

The commitments were as follows: Athens, 5; Cleveland, 23; Columbus, 20; Dayton, several; Longview, none, Massillon, 12; Toledo, 4.

The statute provides that not more than five patients shall be in any one institution at one time under this law, and it seems that there is a tendency for its advantages to be monopolized by patients who are addicted to alcoholic and drug habits.

The time of treatment under the voluntary commitment act is limited to sixty days. This, in the opinion of some of the superintendents, is too short a time. There is in most cases such a marked improvement in this time that the patient and his friends become anxious that he should leave, which he does, although he would be greatly benefitted by a more thorough treatment. But even when no great improvement has been effected at the end of the sixty days it is seldom that the patient is committed in the regular way as seems to have been contemplated in such cases by the formers of the law.

One superintendent suggests the establishment of detention wards in the general hospitals of our large cities where cases suspected of being only temporarily insane could be taken and kept for a reasonable length of time to determine whether their condition is serious enough to warrant proceedings in the Probate Court for regular commitment.

But in spite of the danger of abuse from certain classes of patients, and notwithstanding the limitation of time and the re-

striction of the number the consensus of opinion is strongly in favor of the law inasmuch as it secures treatment for many in the early stages of their disease who would otherwise defer it until too late to effect a cure.

A law was passed at the last session of the Legislature extending the parole system to the prisoners in workhouses of the state. Under its provisions prisoners have been paroled as follows: Dayton, none; Canton, 2; Xenia, 9; Cincinnati, 15; Columbus, 21; Zanesville, 29; Toledo, 124; Cleveland, 428; total, 628.

The number paroled from the Cleveland House of Correction is a little more than twice as many as from the other seven workhouses combined. The superintendent states that the percentage of paroled prisoners returned to the House of Correction is about the same as that of the regularly discharged prisoners. The probability is that sufficient care was not exercised in selecting prisoners for parole. The next largest number was paroled from the workhouse at Toledo. Out of the one hundred and twenty-four who were paroled, thirty, or 24 per cent failed to comply with all the provisions. Twenty complied in part so that only ten prisoners, or eight per cent failed entirely. This was thought by the superintendent to be a good showing.

There is no doubt that if the law is properly administered it will become a strong factor in the reformation of the prisoners committed to the workhouses and will be an important step in the direction of making these institutions reformatory in their character.

The law providing that all the insane who are now in county infirmaries shall be cared for in state hospitals after June 1st, 1903, cannot be complied with in full on account of the lack of room. The appropriations for buildings did not take proper account of the increase in insanity, so that in three or four districts it is thought that it will not be possible to entirely relieve the almshouses of this class of their inmates even when the new buildings now in the course of construction are completed. The remainder think their accommodations will be adequate at least for a time but all the institutions have been delayed in the construction of their new buildings. The State Hospital at Athens

is the only one which has thus far been able to fully care for all the insane in its district.

In the field of new legislation the Board of State Charities is advocating a number of measures.

One of these is the establishment of a State institution for crippled and deformed children. At the last session of the legislature the Governor was authorized to appoint a commission to inquire into the desirability and feasibility of establishing such an institution. The Commission has been appointed and has entered upon its inquiries and will be prepared to report at the next session of the legislature.

Other legislation advocated in the Annual Report of the Board of State Charities is:

The appointment of a state agent for the placement and supervision of dependent children.

The establishment of juvenile courts in all the larger cities of the state similar to the one in Cleveland.

The establishment of a colony for epileptics for the custodial care of adults at some central point in the state.

The enactment of a cumulative sentence law.

Provision for the payment of earnings of convicts to their families, if dependent.

The establishment of the probation system in connection with workhouses.

In addition to the recommendations contained in the report of the Board, it is stated that individual members of that body and other interested parties are advocating the establishment of a separate penitentiary for women and better provision for the criminal insane.

Public sentiment in the state seems to be active in regard to the welfare of the poor and unfortunate.

In the larger cities the workers in the charitable and philanthropic institutions constitute a society for the propaganda of information upon the conditions and the needs of the dependent and delinquent classes.

In the state at large the most potent influence in the charitable field for the stimulation of the public in the establishment and maintenance of necessary institutions and for the instruction

of the people in correct methods is the Board of State Charities and the State Conference of Charities and Correction which the Board has so successfully fostered.

The last State Conference which was held at Springfield was attended by nearly four hundred delegates. The session lasted three days and the papers and discussions were exceedingly practical in their nature.

The continued growth of the State Conference in attendance as well as the increasing value of its discussions has been in no small degree the result of the wisdom and untiring zeal of the secretary of the Board of State Charities, Mr. Jos. P. Byers, who recently severed his connection with that body to become general superintendent of the Indiana Reformatory at Jeffersonville.

Mr. Byers, as secretary, has been identified with and largely responsible for the important work of the Board during the last ten years and his fellow workers in charities and correction feel that the state has lost the services of a most valuable assistant.

It will certainly not be inappropriate that this report should record the death of the Hon. William Howard Neff, a man who for years had been identified with all that was best in the State in the promotion of the welfare of the helpless. As a citizen than whom none stood higher in the love and esteem of his fellow men, as a member of the Board of State Charities, in which body his counsel commanded the highest respect, as a worker in the State Conference of Charities, and as a member of the National Conference of Charities and Correction with which he was identified almost from its organization and which selected him as its president in 1886 and in which capacity he presided at the meeting in St. Paul, he endeared himself to every one by his gentleness, his unfailing courtesy and his genuine charity. The State of Ohio, by his death, has lost a most valuable citizen, and one whose life it is pleased to hold in honored and grateful remembrance.

OREGON.

W. R. WALPOLE, PORTLAND, STATE CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

At the session of the legislature in January and February last, bills were introduced as follows:

1. To create a State Board of Charities. Killed in the House Committee.

2. To regulate transportation of insane persons to State Asylum, providing female attendant for females. Killed by sheriffs' lobby in the House.

3. To regulate commitment of minors to Reform School. Taking the power of commitment from municipal and justices' courts and vesting it solely in County Courts. Passed.

4. To establish a school for Defective Youth. Referred to a committee of holdover senators to procure statistics and report at next session of legislature.

5. To provide for control and reformation of truants. Passed Senate — died in committee of House.

6. To regulate child labor. Prohibiting employment of children in stores, factories, mills, mines, messenger and telegraph service, under 14 years of age. Placed in the hands of a commission composed of 3 women and 2 men for enforcement.

7. To extend age of commitment of minors to Reform School from sixteen to eighteen years. Passed in senate only.

Legislation Needed.

1. To create a State Board of Charities.

2. To regulate transportation of insane women to State Asylum.

3. To provide for the control and reformation of truants.

4. To provide for care and education of Defective Youths.

Public sentiment is growing in favor of the work of Charities and Correction. It is shown in the organization of a State Conference in 1902 and will be further developed by the Conference to be held in Portland, March 30th and 31st, 1903.

The bills introduced at the last legislature were a part of the work resulting from the Conference held in 1902.

The executive committee of the conference will continue to create public sentiment in favor of needed legislation through the public press, by issuing reports of Conference proceedings and by personal work with legislators.

PENNSYLVANIA.

MRS. ROLLIN NORRIS, PHILADELPHIA, STATE CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

The Juvenile Court Act, passed during the previous Legislature, the constitutionality of which Act was questioned, was decided unconstitutional according to the law of Pennsylvania as it contained too many separate subjects. So new bills were prepared to contain the several provisions respectively in the previous Act and were introduced into the legislature this year. These bills, with one amendment passed both Houses, and now await the Governor's signature. The provisions of the bills require that children under sixteen years of age must not be confined with older criminals; that they must be heard before a judge and not before a magistrate, and provide for probation officers to look after children in their homes who are under the care of the court.

An Act has been passed by the Legislature, and awaits the signature of the Governor, to provide for the establishment of a State institution for the feeble-minded and epileptic to be called The Eastern Pennsylvania State Institution for the Feeble-Minded and Epileptic. The establishment of the institution is to be in the charge of a Commission to consist of one Senator selected by the President pro tempore of the Senate, one Representative selected by the Speaker of the House, three persons to be selected by the Governor of the State, and the President pro tempore of the Senate and the Speaker of the House. The Act provides for an appropriation of $250,000, to purchase the land, prepare plans and begin the buildings. It provides that the buildings "shall be in two groups—one for the educational and industrial department and one for the custodial or asylum department, with such other subdivisions as will best classify and separate the many diverse forms of the infirmity to be treated—

and shall embrace one or more school houses, a gymnasium and drill hall, a workshop and an isolating hospital, all on such scale as will create an institution to accommodate not less than 500 inmates," and planned for additions as population demands. It provides that the "institution shall be entirely and specially devoted to the reception, detention, care and training of epileptics and of idiotic and feeble-minded persons of either sex, and shall be so planned in the beginning and construction as shall provide separate classification of the numerous groups embraced under the terms epileptics and idiotic and imbecile or feeble-minded. Cases afflicted with either epilepsy or paralysis shall have a due proportion of space and care in the custodial department. It is specifically determined that the processes of an agricultural training shall be primarily considered in the educational department and that the employment of the inmates in the care and raising of stock and the cultivation of small fruits and vegetables, roots, et cetera, shall be made tributary when possible to the maintenance of the institution."

Heretofore there has been no State institution for epileptics. There is the Pennsylvania Epileptic Hospital and Colony Farm at Oakbourne, Pa., but it is not a State institution. The present provision for the feeble-minded in the Western Pennsylvania Institution for Feeble-Minded Children, at Polk, a State institution for the Western part of the State, and the Pennsylvania Training School for Feeble-Minded Children at Elwyn, Pa., where the State pays so much per capita for the persons it sends there.

The Henry Phipps Institute for the Study, Treatment and Prevention of Tuberculosis, has been established in Philadelphia, under the charge of Dr. Lawrence Flick, about one million dollars having been given by Mr. Henry Phipps for the purpose. Its work includes teaching persons how to prevent the spread of tuberculosis, dispensary facilities, including the providing of various preventatives for the spread of the disease, for those at work and unable to leave their work, and a hospital for dying cases—other cases are taken care of by the Hospital for Poor Consumptives at White Haven, Pa.

There has been in existence for about two years, the Curtin Junior Republic, near Reading, Pa.

RHODE ISLAND.

GEORGE F. KEENE, M. D., HOWARD, STATE CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

There has been but little change in the charitable and reformatory work of this state since the last annual report. Great interest has been centered, however, in the proper provision for the curative treatment and the scientific handling of that insidious and widely disseminated scourge of the human race, formerly known as the "white plague," but now more accurately called tuberculosis. Much missionary work has been done by the medical profession, led by the zealous efforts of the State Board of Health, which has stimulated the State Legislature to make intelligent inquiry into the necessity for definite action. A very well-chosen committee of the General Assembly was authorized last year to visit the different states and confer with those best fitted to give the necessary information as to the proper legislative action to be taken, if any, in dealing with tuberculosis. This committee reported unanimously in favor of the erection and maintenance of a State Sanitorium for the isolation and treatment of this disease. There has already been appropriated sufficient money for a site, which has been selected and purchased, and there is a resolution now pending before the present legislature appropriating seventy-five thousand dollars for the furthering of this work.

There is no question of the need of a State Sanitorium for tuberculous patients nor is there any dispute that Rhode Island is not keeping step exactly with many of the more advanced commonwealths in classifying and providing for certain of the defective and dependent classes, which experience has shown in the larger states are infinitely better off when separately provided for. The epileptic and feeble-minded are now cared for, either in the State Hospital for the Insane or the State Alms House. Although the number of these is as yet comparatively small, they

are constantly increasing and there is quite a growing sentiment that this State should in the near future make better and separate provision for this class of unfortunates.

With regard to the delinquent classes, the probation law and the provision for separate arraignment and trial of juveniles has been most beneficent legislation and has been in operation now over three years. It is to be hoped that this year "something will be accomplished towards the enactment of the laws of Indeterminate Sentence and Parole."

Public sentiment is not dormant in this state as regards the work of charities and corrections but it could well bear a little judicious stimulation with the hope of greater results. There are a few active and efficient organizations here whose work is faithful and fruitful, and it is to be hoped that a greater awakening of interest will be brought about in the future, if possible, without too great a multiplicity of organization, which many times results in a weakening of effort.

The statistics of delinquents, destitutes, and defectives in the state are as follows: Criminals in the State Prison, 183; County Jails, 267; State Work House and House of Correction, 223; Sockanosset School for Boys, 343; Oaklawn School for Girls, 41.

In the State Almshouse there are 460, of which number 59 are children. The State Home and School for Destitute Children has 124 inmates, beside about 100 boarded out in families.

There is no institution for the blind in this state but 28 of this class are supported outside of the state. There are 60 inmates in the R. I. Institute for the Deaf.

At the State Insane Hospital there are 818 patients and at the Butler Hospital there are 44 patients who are State beneficiaries.

SOUTH CAROLINA.

REV. EDMUND E. JOYNER, COLUMBIA, STATE CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

The last General Assembly enacted a law prohibiting the employment of children under ten years of age, in the cotton mills at any time, and altogether at night. The age limit, after one

year, is advanced to eleven, and at the close of the second year to twelve. This was the bill prepared by senator John Q. Marshall, of Columbia; there were other and more comprehensive measures proposed; the whole matter was thoroughly discussed in both houses, and the Marshall bill was passed. It does not carry as much as some demanded, is much more than some wanted; it allows those opposed to such legislation time to ponder and grow in grace; it gives hope to those who believe it best economy to unshackle the *infants* of the Commonwealth from the greed of indolent fathers or "grab-all" corporations. Following this enactment a "compulsory education" bill was urged and had strong advocates, and was defeated by eight votes, only.

It is doubtful whether or not there is a need for other institutions, for either charities or corrections. Each one of the Christian denominations has an orphanage or other refuge for the desolate, in the larger cities and towns there are hospitals, with provision for the destitute, each county has its "poor-house" — which, I respectfully submit, might in most cases, be made less "poor." The State, with pride, and at great cost, maintains its asylum for the deaf-mute and blind and its hospital for the insane.

Distinct progress is observable at the State Penitentiary. The last legislature passed a law, prohibiting the leasing out of convicts to private parties for any purpose whatsoever, present contracts being filled. There was also an enactment providing that convicts with sentences within ten years may be sent to labor on the public roads, or to the state prison, at the discretion of the judge presiding. The superintendent, Hon. D. J. Griffith, reports, December 31st, 1902, 701 prisoners, of which there were males, white, 26, females, 4 — 80; colored, males, 590, females, 31 — 621.

The report referred to above says:

"At the Reformatory, on the Lexington county farm, we have 33 boys under 16 years of age, who are kept employed at all kinds of farm work. They are guarded by a man specially appointed for that purpose. They are kept entirely to themselves at night." Of this branch of the penitentiary system it is encouraging to hear this from the chaplain of the institution, the Rev. J. C. Abney, in his report to the superintendent; "There cannot be

too much said of your very efficient management of the criminal youths placed in your care. The marked improvement in the boys is sufficient proof that you have made no mistake in the course you have taken to reform them. You have a good man in charge, whose morals are of the very highest type. I instruct them in the Sunday school lesson every Sunday evening, and also preach for them. Twenty-eight of them have joined the Christian Association this year. This of itself is a mark of the wonderful improvement of these youthful criminals." There are inspiring indications that the present administration of the penitentiary system is seeking a right solution of the penal problem. There is an atmosphere of progress observable in the disposition of the General Assembly, and in the reports of the superintendent, physician and chaplain.

The legislature provides $200,000 for pensions for the dependent Confederate veterans, and lately has added $2,000 for artificial limbs for those needing such adjuncts. There is talk of a home for these venerable warriors, that they may have shelter when everything else fails them.

There were appropriations, by the last legislature, for buildings for the asylum for the D. D & B., for the hospital for the insane, and for the penitentiary.

From the foregoing I think you can gather the fact, that public sentiment in favor of larger and more scientific measures, both for charities and corrections, is growing. Undoubtedly there is increasing breadth and length of vision among us, which more and more takes account of methods as applied to conditions and to needs. I am confident that the heights attained by the leaders among our men and women give an outlook so enlivening, so inviting, that they will gradually rise to successive summits.

SOUTH DAKOTA.

W. B. SHERRARD, SIOUX FALLS, STATE CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

The legislature which has just adjourned appropriated the sum of $300,000 for the enlargement of the following institu-

tions: Insane Asylum, School for Feeble-minded, Deaf Mute School, School for the Blind and Penitentiary.

It is worthy of note that the only institution which did not ask for an enlargement of its facilities was the Reform School.

The state is now thoroughly equipped to properly care for all classes of its citizens and its institutions are officered by men who command the confidence of the people.

A salaried board of control has been substituted for a non-paid board of charities.

Nothing has been done as yet toward organizing a state conference of charities and corrections, altho the need of such a conference is greatly felt and will doubtless materialize in the near future.

VERMONT.

REV. J. EDW. WRIGHT, MONTPELIER, STATE CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

The Kindergarten is being gradually introduced as a part of the public school system in the larger towns of the state. One of our cities — Rutland — is trying the curfew ordinance in the interest of the morals of the children.

The State Hospital for the Insane has been improved by the addition of a new building called the Nurses' Home.

The Legislature last fall established a State Tuberculosis Commission, instructed to ascertain the extent to which tuberculosis prevails in Vermont, and the need of a State Sanitarium for consumptives. They are to report to the next Legislature (in 1904) with recommendations. The Legislature also enlarged, and more fully defined, the powers of the State Board of Health.

A high-license local-option law has been recently accepted, on reference to the voters of the state, by the small majority of 729. It remains to be seen whether, as a result of this great change in dealing with the liquor traffic, reversing the policy of prohibition, which has been maintained in Vermont for half a century, the amount of poverty, disease, insanity, and crime is lessened or increased.

VIRGINIA.

WILLIAM FRANCIS DREWRY, M. D., PETERSBURG, VA., CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

1. (a). The legislature now in extra session has enacted laws (in conformity with the provisions of the new constitution) regulating the management of the hospitals for the insane and of the penitentiary, which will tend to infuse new life, wherever needed, in these institutions, and keep them on as high a plane of excellency as possible. Each hospital is now under the immediate control of a special board composed of three members, and the special board of the several hospitals (four in number — three for whites and one for negroes) constitute a general board which has supervision over all the hospitals, and shapes and directs the policy of management, which promises to be of a progressive nature.

There is also a commissioner of hospitals whose duty it is to examine monthly the books and accounts of the several institutions, establish and maintain a uniform system of book-keeping and see that all funds appropriated for maintenance are expended in the manner and for the purpose prescribed by the legislature. The term of the commisisoner is four and that of each director six years. The terms of superintendents and other officers are lengthened from two to four years. The general board appoints the superintendents; the several special boards appoint the other officers and the superintendents appoint all other employes of the respective institution. The bill provides for the care in the hospitals of what is generally termed harmless and senile dements.

The Criminal Insane.

A most excellent feature of the new statute is that one which provides that "if any person convicted of crime and sentenced to confinement in the state penitentiary become insane during the term for which he has been convicted and sentenced, he shall be confined and treated in a special ward in the state penitentiary to be set aside and reserved for such insane criminals."

The new constitution provides for the appointment by the Governor of a board of five directors, with a term of five years each, to manage the state penitentiary, appoint the superintendent, physician, etc. Formerly the board of directors was composed of three persons; the superintendent was elected by the legislature and the physician was appointed by the Governor. Under the new law the superintendent appoints all the assistants, guards, etc.

Excellent business men have been selected by the Governor to control and direct the management of the hospitals and the penitentiary.

The habitual drunkard came in for consideration at the hands of the legislature. Under certain conditions and restrictions he may be committed for four months or longer, to the care and control of a private institution.

(b) No new state institution has been established but considerable improvements have been made at nearly all the existing ones.

The penitentiary has received special attention on the part of the state government. A large building designed and constructed on modern up-to-date plans is in course of erection. The cost will be about $200,000. It will be a credit to the state.

In place of the building, — at the Eastern State Hospital, — which was destroyed by fire in January, 1892, a magnificent structure, thoroughly equipped in every particular, has been completed. Now, Virginia has accommodations at her hospitals to care for all her insane.

In Richmond city and in a few of the counties new modern jails have been erected; but in many of the counties the jails and poorhouses are not at all creditable to this great state and her noble people.

2. State institutions are specially needed for three classes: Epileptics, the feeble-minded, and the colored deaf, dumb and blind. For a number of years efforts have been made to have established a colony for epileptics, and there is strong sentiment in the state favorable to it. Interest in the matter has by no means waned. There is a crying need for state care and supervision of idiots and the feeble-minded. At present there is no

school, asylum or other place provided in the state for these unfortunates.

The state has not yet made any provision for the education of the colored deaf, dumb and blind children, though a bill was introduced in the legislature last winter looking to the establishment of such a school. The most important legislation needed is that to establish and provide for a state board of charities to inspect and report upon the condition and needs of all charitable and penal institutions—state, county and municipal. Earnest efforts are being made by the State Conference of Charities and Correction and a number of lovers of mankind who believe in lifting up their fellowmen, to bring about a state board of charities. Progress is being made in that direction, and ultimate success will result.

3. There has been considerable interest manifested in charities and correction throughout the state, by local benevolent organization. A wide-spread public sentiment as regards work along these lines is evident, but there is lack of organization in many quarters, and ignorance of the best methods exists in other places. The State Conference of Charities and Correction, which has been well organized and which held an exceptionally successful meeting in Richmond last February, has already accomplished much in stimulating and in educating the public mind to a recognition of the correct ideas of charity and correction. The press throughout the state generally, has given support to this humane organization and its aims and purposes. To further increase and strengthen the work of charities and correction, a state board of charities and more local organizations are necessary.

WASHINGTON.

THOMAS P. WESTENDORF, CHEHALIS, STATE CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

Much legislation for the advancement of the work of charities and correction in this state was proposed but nothing was accomplished by the recent session. A bill which proposed the separation of the feeble-minded children from the deaf, dumb

and blind, another eliminating the word "reform" and substituting "industrial" in the name of the state school for incorrigibles and several bills asking for state aid for private charities were defeated. Appropriations for new buildings in several of the institutions were denied.

With the rapid increase of population it will be necessary to greatly enlarge the capacity of all our state institutions which, at present, are crowded. Among physicians there is a decided opinion that special provision should be made for the care of epileptic and tuberculous patients. It is claimed that owing to the great difference of climate in this state it will be possible to transfer patients from either side of the cascade range advantageously.

The six institutions, under the management of the State Board of Control, make a very satisfactory showing in their biennial report just issued. This board is composed of three members appointed by the Governor for two, four and six years at a salary of $2,000 per annum. They make alternate monthly visits and keep complete duplicate records in the office at the capitol. The following data gleaned from their report will be of interest:

Name of Institution.	Average population.	Average daily cost per capita.
Western Washington Hospital for the Insane	747.15	.3548
Eastern Washington Hospital for the Insane	366.48	.4139
State Penitentiary	514.5	.3470
State Reform School	168.75	.3323
State Soldiers' Home	193.75	.4647
State School for Defective Youth	157.5	.506

WEST VIRGINIA.

MRS. N. R. C. MORROW, FAIRMONT, STATE CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

West Virginia has a Reform School for Boys, an Industrial School for Girls, a Home for Blind Incurables, two hospitals for the Insane, an institution for the Deaf and a Penitentiary. The State has also a Humane Society supported in its authority by

state law and supported in part financially from the state treasury. There is also a Children's Home Society which co-operates to some extent with the Humane Society and the Girls' Industrial School. There was no new or proposed legislation along the line of charitable or penal institutions this year, except the appropriations for the needs of those already established. A liberal appropriation was made for additional buildings at the Reform School and also the Industrial School for Girls.

Public sentiment as regards charities and correction is growing in cordiality toward all effort for the prevention of crime, as is manifest by the attitude of the people toward the Humane Society and by the number of towns that have tried to secure or have secured the Curfew ordinance. I believe the Humane Society calls the attention of the people to needy and dependent children perhaps more than does any other agency.

The Children's Home Society has done a good deal toward securing laws to take children from our county homes and to place them under more favorable environment.

WISCONSIN.

H. GROTOPHORST, BARABOO, STATE CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

In Wisconsin there are two state hospitals; one at Winnebago and the other at Mendota. These two hospitals contain about 1,000 insane patients. In addition to this there is the Milwaukee Hospital at Wauwatosa, where there are about 500 patients. This hospital is under the management of a separate board. In addition to these hospitals there are thirty county asylums in which there are in the neighborhood of 4,000 patients. There are 71 counties in Wisconsin, and although a number of counties have made application for authority to erect a county asylum, such authority has been refused. The State Board of Control, consisting of five members, appointed by the Governor, has the power to give counties authority to build county asylums. During the last year authority has been given to Monroe County and Wolworth County to build such asylums. The asylum at Monroe County cost in the neighborhood of $60,000,

while the asylum at Waukesha will cost in the neighborhood of $80,000. The State Board requires that a large tract of land, about 400 acres, be purchased before buildings are erected. It is supposed that it will not be necessary to erect any more county asylums for four or five years. A bill has been introduced in the legislature of Wisconsin which is now in session, asking an appropriation of $100,000.00 to be used for the purpose of erecting an asylum for the criminal and violent insane. There are now about 35 criminally insane patients in the Northern Hospital. In each of the thirty county asylums there is one or two patients who are violent and noisy, disturbing the rest of the patients. The object of erecting the new building is to take care of these violent patients, thus relieving the state hospitals and the county asylums of the burden of keeping such patients. Although two large dormitories have just been completed at the Home for the feeble-minded, which will take care of about 220 feeble-minded persons, there is still need for more room, as there are now over 300 applications on file asking for room for feeble-minded persons. The Legislature has been asked to appropriate money to erect the necessary buildings, either at the Home for the feeble-minded or at Milwaukee, to take care of these feeble-minded persons. The legislature of Wisconsin has always been liberal in making appropriations for its unfortunate citizens. It can be safely said that the state institutions where these unfortunate people are housed, including also the prison and reformatory, were never in a better condition. The citizens of this state are proud of their charitable and penal institutions and are willing to be taxed to keep up their present high standard.

PORTO RICO.

B. H. OSTERHOUDT, SAN JUAN, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

There has been no change of consequence since last report in the charitable institutions supported by the Insular Government of Porto Rico.

Steady progress has been made along general lines and conditions are improved, but the financial condition of the island has

prohibited a marked increase in accommodations and there has been no legislation and there are no new institutions proposed at present, though the needs of the island are many. Reform schools, homes for incurable cripples, and poor farms being the most urgent.

PROVINCE OF NEW BRUNSWICK.

REV. HUNTER BOYD, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

Dear Sir:— In reporting for this Province for the past year, I regret that the hopes cherished twelve months ago have not been realized, owing in the main to my absence during the greater part of the time, on a visit to England. There is no material difference in the number and strength of the various institutions, so that the figures in my first report may serve approximately for this year's report also.

The Chipman Memorial Hospital at St. Stephen has just completed one year, and has proved of signal benefit to the county in which it is situated. (Charlotte County.) Twenty-three medical cases were treated, and 46 surgical cases and almost all were discharged cured or improved in condition.

An inquiry was instituted into the affairs of the Hospital at St. John and valuable recommendations were made for the increased efficiency of the institution. Unfortunately for the Province the much needed college for Deaf and Dumb at Fredericton has been in most unsatisfactory hands. A commission of enquiry was instituted and the findings bore out the charges made by the Journal that gave expression to mistrust. Attached herewith is a full account of the enquiry and it may be well that a description of the guilty parties should be accessible in U. S. A. lest they have the impertinence to seek for similar work in your own institutions. The Associated Charities of St. John continue to justify the hopes of their supporters and excellent service has been rendered by the secretary, Mrs. Frank Hall.

A topic that has engaged the most serious attention of Ministers and Philanthropists generally has been the management of our "boys" particularly of the towns. The subject has been discussed in Ministers' meetings of all denominations, and Sunday

School conventions and so forth, and advantage has been taken of the mature judgment of General Booth of the Salvation Army.

The only new legislation that falls to be noted here is the regulation for smallpox. Vaccination is now compulsory for all children entering school, and this enactment is calculated to have a beneficial effect in familiarizing the juvenile mind with respect for authority, whatever the merits of the medical expedient may be.

As to the needs for improved legislation one may add that there is a growing sentiment towards making the "Temperance Act" more effective, and the desire for compulsory education is becoming more imperative.

Personally, I am grateful for the interest shown in the welfare of our Province, and for the valuable assistance placed within our reach by the reports from various states and cities. It would be a good thing if we had a Provincial Organization competent to send delegates to your National Conference, and possibly the Government would more readily consider the propriety of themselves sending delegates if on the return of such persons to New Brunswick there was a kindred organization to whom they could report.

ONTARIO.

A. M. ROSEBRUGH, M. D., TORONTO, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

The meeting of the Ontario Legislature has not yet been held so that there is no additional legislation to report. An interesting statement has been made by the Government, however, to the effect that they propose abolishing the Ontario Reformatory for Boys and allowing future commitments to be made to the Industrial Schools. Owing to active preventive work, the population of these two institutions has been reduced to ninety, and as there are only three hundred and eighty delinquent children in all the institutions of the Province it will be seen that the record is a highly creditable one. The ten years' work of the thirty Children's Aid Societies, acting under the general superintendency of Mr. J. J. Kelso, has been very effective, not only in preventing much neglect of children, but also in finding fos-

ter-homes for children who were a public charge. About two thousand children have been placed out, and by an excellent system of supervision their interests are being safeguarded.

The old buildings of the Reformatory will, under the proposed re-arrangement, be used for the housing of senile patients from the overcrowded insane asylums. Quite a controversy has arisen between the Government and the municipalities over the inability of the former to provide accommodation for all the insane, some fifty or sixty of whom are now confined in the county jails awaiting admission to the asylums. The charge is made by Government inspectors that in the past many senile cases were, through the connivance of the municipalities, foisted on the Province when they should have been cared for in local poor-houses. The insane population of the Province is at present 4,500, and about one thousand of these are said to be simple cases of senility or dementia.

The Prisoners' Aid Association held a Prison Reform Conference in December at which several important reforms were advocated, including the inauguration of the indeterminate sentence and parole system, the extension of the probation system for first offenders, and the more scientific treatment of inebriates. The Dominion Government four years ago granted a ticket of leave system which has not been at all satisfactory to either prison officials or reformers; there is no supervision after release and its administration admits of political influence being brought to bear in seeking for a release. The only satisfactory method is to have an independent pardoning board and supervision over those who secure conditional discharge. Although Ontario was among the leaders in establishing children's courts, there has been no corollary probation system, the young offenders being discharged on "suspended sentence." A proper probation system that would find employment for the lads and encourage them to do well would prevent the return to Court of many who now simply go on in wrong doing until again apprehended. The Prisoner's Aid Association was fortunate in securing the attendance of the Hon. S. J. Barrows, B. A. of New York, whose presence contributed very materially to the interest and success of the Prison Reform Conference.

PROVINCE OF QUEBEC.
MONTREAL.

RICHARD H. LANE, MONTREAL, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

The traditions of Great Britain and of the Latin countries influence the Charities of Montreal to a great degree. It is next to an impossibility for an outsider, who does not understand our conditions, to form a just opinion of our work for social betterment. For instance, our substitute for the Poor House — licensed begging on the streets by certain of the residuum of the submerged tenth, is condemned absolutely by the specialist, who is unwilling and sometimes unable to realize that all systems are a mixture of good and evil. Indeed our problems here as in other cities are great and oftentimes seem beyond any solution. In a moment of despair one wishes to tear up, root and branch, our whole system and to transplant the modern way of some American town. But fortunately, over against all disagreements, we have an altruism, a sense of responsibility, in our municipality, in our Relief Societies, in our Churches and among our citizens, that is deep, abiding and based on the firm middle ground, between pure academic economics and soft philanthropy.

For the past twelve months we are glad to report that there is a better and deeper co-operation between all Charities of our city. There is an attempt to utilize our laws, which by the way, are very satisfactory — against the desertion of the family. A distinct gain has been made in enforcing the laws against unlawful begging of adults and children on the streets.

During the past year, His Grace, the Roman Catholic Archbishop of Montreal, has started, under the management of the Sisters of Providence, the Hospice des Incurables — fulfilling a long felt want. A new Civic Hospital, for contagious diseases, adequately equipped, is to be built this summer. The Charity Organization Society conceived of a movement against Tuberculosis and the Montreal League for the Prevention of Tuberculosis, under the Patronage of His Excellency, the Governor-General, is now commencing its work. The fund, for the Chil-

dren's Memorial to Queen Victoria, is nearly raised and before the year is over it will be completed.

We need an Industrial School for Protestant boys and the matter is being brought before the Provincial Parliament at Quebec. We need Sanatoria for the feeble-minded and epileptic. We need another Home for both Catholic and Protestant dependent adults. We need a hospital for advanced cases of tuberculosis — relegislation, we sorely need laws that will prevent the sending of paupers to our city from our own Province and from the other Provinces of the Dominion and from the States.

The fact that our Charities are all private and supported by voluntary contributions is evidence enough that our citizens are keen regarding their duty to the less fortunate. It is a pleasure to note that these Institutions, on the whole, are supported liberally and run wisely.

The real betterment of the dependent is playing a larger part in all social work. To watch the development of the solution of our social problems — so mixed and in many ways unique — will be both interesting and instructive. The solution must be in keeping with our traditions and if we are faithful to them, the result is bound to be worthy of all that is best, both of the English and French peoples.

IV.

Destitute Children.

CHILD LABOR AND PAUPERISM.

BY MISS JANE ADDAMS, HULL-HOUSE, CHICAGO.

Each age has of course its own temptations, and above all its own peculiar industrial temptations. When we ask why it is that Child Labor has been given to us to discuss and to rectify rather than to the people who lived before us, we need only remember that for the first time in industrial history the labor of the little child has in many industries become as valuable as that of a man or woman. The old-fashioned weaver was obliged to possess skill and enough strength to pull his beam back and forth. With the invention of machinery the need of skill has been eliminated from many processes; with the application of steam and electricity, strength has also been largely eliminated, so that a little child may mend the thread in a textile mill almost as well and in some respects better than a strong and clumsy man or woman. This is true of many other industries, until it has come about that we are tempted as never before to use the labor of little children and that the temptation to exploit premature labor is peculiar to this industrial epoch.

What then are we doing about it? How deeply are we concerned that this labor shall not result to the detriment of the child, and what excuses are we making to ourselves for thus prematurely using up the strength of a child? Of course it is always difficult to see the wrong in a familiar thing and it is a test of moral insight to be able to see that an affair of familiar intercourse and daily living may also be wrong. I have taken a Chicago street car on a winter's night in December at ten o'clock when dozens of little girls who have worked in the department stores all day are also boarding the cars. I know as many others

do that these children will not get into their beds much before midnight, and that they will have to be up again early in the morning to go to their daily work. And yet I take my car almost placidly—I am happy to say not quite placidly—because I have seen it many times. Almost every day at six o'clock I see certain factories pouring out a stream of men and women and boys and girls. The boys and girls have a peculiar hue, a color so distinctive that any one meeting them on the street even on Sunday in their best clothes and mixed up with other children who go to school and play out of doors, can distinguish almost in an instant the children working in factories. There is also on their faces a something indescribable, a premature anxiety and sense of responsibility which we should declare pathetic if we were not used to it.

How far are we responsible when we allow custom to blind our eyes to the things that are wrong? In spite of all of our charities and corrections, are we really so lacking in moral enterprise and vigor that the people who come after us may say—"the real temptation which came to them they did not even perceive; they talked about applied morality, seemed to have good ideas, but they fell down before the one situation which they ought to have grappled with."

What excuses do we make for ourselves? The sentimental excuse is the one use most frequently in the north. It is said that the labor of these little children is needed for the support of widowed mothers. Some of us are sure that the widowed mother argument has been seriously overworked. In every community there can only be a certain number of widowed mothers, unless some plague has carried off the men in the prime of life. Out of that number of widows only another certain number will be absolutely impecunious, for if the community is prosperous some of the working men by benefit societies and insurances will have made some little provision for their families. Out of that certain number of impecunious widows only a few will have children between the ages of ten and fourteen, in which short space of time the temptation to the premature use of children's labor always lies.

In a certain manufacturing town it was discovered that 3,600 children on the school census roll were not to be found in the schools. We have a much larger number than that in Chicago; according to our school census we lose 11,000 between the first and second grades. In this particular manufacturing town it was suggested that the children be looked up and the number of those who were supporting widowed mothers be verified. Out of the 3,600 children it was found that 1,100 were legitimately out of the public schools, i. e., that they had moved out of the district, that they were ill, that they were attending private institutions, or that they were legally at work. That left 2,500 to be accounted for, and out of those it was found that exactly 66 were the children of widows. Out of the 66 only 23 were in any real sense contributing to the support of their mothers. The other mothers had older children or other means of support, so that only 23 were in any way absolutely dependent on the wages of those children, which wages could be only supplementary at best. It was certainly a great deal better for the community, for the widows and the children, that grown up, vigorous people should take care of those 23 widows for a few years, until the children were old enough to go out to work and bring in a decent wage with which to support the family, and that the children should be saved from the breakdown, which premature labor so often implies.

When children are thus broken down it means that we do not stand up to the obligations which belong to our own time, but insist upon using up the energy which belongs to the future.

What connection do we find between child labor and pauperism? In the little book on American Charities written by Dr. A. G. Warner, a better than which has never been issued, he takes statistics from various cities and gives three or four leading causes of pauperism. The first cause is non-employment. In almost every case the men who first lose their places and are most quickly thrown out in an industrial crisis, those who are the last to be taken on in times of industrial prosperity, who are inefficient and not very strong, men who do not stand well in the trades and whom the foreman is glad to get rid of in any way, are those who have never had sufficient training, and who curious-

ly lack strength and vigor. How far is child labor responsible for this lack of training and vigor, for this class of paupers? We have a municipal lodging house in Chicago largely filled with tramps. In addition to housing them, an intelligent effort is made to get them into regular industry. A physician is in attendance and makes a careful examination of each man who comes to the lodging house, and for the last few months we have been trying to see what connection can be genuinely established between premature labor and worn out men. It is surprising to find how many of them are tired to death of monotonous labor and begin to tramp in order to get away from it, just as a business man goes into the woods because he is worn out with the monotony of business life. This inordinate desire to get away from work seems to be connected with the fact that the men have started to work very early, before they had the physique to stand up to it, or the mental vigor with which to overcome its difficulties, or the moral stamina which makes a man stick to his work whether he likes it or not. But we cannot demand any of these things from a growing boy. A boy grows restless, his determination breaks down and he runs away. At least this seems to be true of many of the men who come to the lodging house. I recall a man who had begun to work in a textile mill quite below the present legal age in New England, and who had worked hard for sixteen years. He told his tale with all simplicity, and as he made a motion with his hand, he said: "I done that for sixteen years." I give the words as he gave them to me. "At last I was sick in bed for two or three days with a fever, and when I crawled out I made up my mind that I would rather go to hell than to go back to that mill." Whether he considered Chicago an equivalent for that I do not know, but he certainly tramped to Chicago and has been tramping four years. He does not drink except occasionally, and that only during the last two years. He does not steal. He works in the summer and wanders about the rest of the year getting something to do when he can; but the suggestion of a factory throws him into a panic and quickly causes him to disappear from the lodging house. The physician has made a diagnosis of "general debility." The man is not fit

for steady work. He has been whipped in the battle of life, and is spent prematurely because he began prematurely.

What does this mean? That the young can not stand up to the grind of factory life; that they break down under it, and that we have no right to increase the list of paupers, the list of those who must be cared for by the municipality and by state agencies because when they are still immature and undeveloped, they are subjected to this tremendous pressure.

Let us take another of Mr. Warner's classifications—his classification of illness. We know of course, how the hospitals are beginning to look into this matter, and how they trace certain diseases to the breakdown of the organs which were subjected to abnormal uses, before they were ready to bear it. I recall a tailor for whom the residents of Hull-House tried to get medical assistance. He died at the age of 33, and his death certificate bore the record of "premature senility" due to the fact that he had run a sewing machine since he was six years old. It is no figment of the imagination to say that the human system breaks down when it is put to monotonous work before it is ready to stand up to that work, and that general debility and many diseases may be traced to premature labor. No horse trainer would permit his colts to be so broken down.

Take the pauperizing effects of child labor on the parents. We have in Chicago a great many European immigrants, people who have come from country life in the south of Italy, or Bohemia, hoping that their children will have a better chance than at home. In the old country they worked on farms, which was a very normal life for a young boy or girl. When they come to Chicago they see no reason why their children should not go to work, because they see no difference between the normal activity which they had as boys and the grinding life to which they subject their children. It is difficult for a man who has grown up in out door life to adapt himself to the factory.

You have had similar experience in the South with the families who come to the textile mills from the little farms. They resent the monotonous, petty work. They get out from under it. They will in preference do more poorly paid work, like the care of horses, sweeping floors, or work which has some

similarity to that to which they have been accustomed. At least that is our experience in Chicago. So the parents drop out, and the children make the adaptation and remain, and you get the curious result of the parent of the household being more or less dependent on the earnings of the child. You will hear a child say, "My mother can't say nothing to me; I pay the rent:" or, "I can do what I please because I bring home the biggest wages." All this tends to break down the normal relation between parents and children. The Italian men who go out to work on the railroad in summer tend to settle down in winter upon the wages of their children. It is too great a temptation. A young man from the South of Italy was mourning the death of his little girl of 12, and in his grief he said quite simply, "She was my oldest kid" — (that is the English that many of our friends learn first) "and in two years she could have supported me, and now I shall have to work five or six years longer until the next one" (who was three or four years younger) "can do it." He expected to retire permanently at 36. That breaking down of the normal relation of parent and child and the tendency to pauperize the parent is something to which we have no right to subject him. We ought to hold the parent up to the obligation which he would have fulfilled, had he remained in his early environment.

But the pauperization of society itself is the most serious charge. To paraphrase an illustration used by the Webbs, the factories say to the community; you have educated the children in the public schools, now please give them to me for my factory. I will use them until they begin to demand an adult's wages and then I will turn them out again. If I have broken them down, the community will take care of them in the poorhouse and hospitals. The community which allows this allows itself to be most unfairly treated. What happens when an industry depends upon the labor of boys and girls? It takes those boys and girls at the time when they ought to be at school, when if they were the children of business men they would be having the most expensive education. The wages which are paid to these children of the poor are not the wages which the adult requires, for even the old political economist demanded enough

for subsistence and reproduction of his kind, but wages of mere subsistence, so that the boy and girl take home barely what is necessary to eat and wear. The manufacturer gives him no real instruction and teaches him nothing beyond the habits of promptness and obedience. In almost all factories the work at which the children are employed leads to no trade. By the time they are old enough to receive adult wages they are often sick of the whole business. Such an industry is parasitic on the future of the community. All recall that when the recruiting officers went into the factory regions of the north of England they found the bulk of the people below the standard in stature required in the English army. They were found specially dwarfed in that part of the country where the third generation recorded in their frames the effects of child labor.

Children subjected to premature labor are handed over to the future in an abnormal condition. They are deprived of education as well as depleted physically, and they enter the life of the community handicapped in every way. There is of course the argument that the effect on the wages of the normal adult is such as to point toward pauperism.

I think Mr. Carroll D. Wright made the statement that in New England ninety-seven and one-third per cent. of the bricklayers support their wives and children up to 16, and that only thirty-three per cent. of the textile workers support their wives and their children to the same age. In the textile industries the fathers and mothers and older children pooling all their wages into a common fund receive fifty dollars less than the bricklayer himself receives during a year.

The gravest charge I have to bring against child labor is that it pauperizes the consumers. If I wear a garment which has been made in a sweat shop or a garment for which the maker has not been paid a living wage—a wage so small that her earnings had to be supplemented by the earnings of her husband and children, then I am in debt to the woman who made my cloak. I am a pauper and I permit myself to accept charity from the poorest people of the community. All that can be said against the parasitic character of sweating industries can be said against the parasitic character of child labor, with this difference that

the latter robs the assets of the communiy, it uses up those resources which should have kept industry going on for many years.

We may trace a connection between child labor and pauperism not only for the child of his own family, bringing on premature old age and laying aside able bodied men and women in the noontide of their years; but also the grievous charge is true that it pauperizes the community itself. I should also add that it debauches our moral sentiment, it confuses our sense of values, so that we learn to think that a bale of cheap cotton is more to be prized than a child properly nourished, educated and prepared to take his place in life. Let us stand up to the obligations of our own age. Let us watch that we do not discount the future and cripple the next generation because we were too indolent, I was going to say because we were too dull, to see all that it involves, when we use the labor of little children.

CHILD LABOR AS A NATIONAL PROBLEM; WITH ESPECIAL REFERENCE TO THE SOUTHERN STATES.

BY EDGAR GARDNER MURPHY, CHAIRMAN OF THE ALABAMA COMMITTEE ON CHILD LABOR.

I must begin what I shall try to say to you this evening, with a disclaimer and an explanation. As my disclaimer I would say that I use the word "national" in no political or federal sense. The conditions of industry vary so greatly and so decisively from state to state and from locality to locality that the enactment of a federal child labor law, applicable to all conditions and under all circumstances, would be inadequate if not unfortunate.

As my explanation, I would say that I use the word "national" in that geographical sense in which we must all declare, and with all emphasis, that the problem of child labor is a national problem. North and south, it belongs to all of us. If the proportionate number of child workers is greatest at the south, the actual number of child workers is greater in the one state of Pennsylvania than in all of the states of the south together. Wherever

we find the factory and the child we find the working of those economic and human forces which draw the child into the processes of industrial production. The factory, like every instrumentality of progress, brings its blessings and its evils. Let us recognize its blessings. Let us yield to the blessings, potent and far-reaching as they are, an intelligent and generous measure of appreciation and applause; but let us also have an intelligent perception of the evils of the factory, and let us resolutely bring to those evils — in the name of our children, our country, and our industries — such remedies as we may be able to secure.

While it may be somewhat depressing for us to realize that the industrial development of our country bears its curse, it is inspiring to remember that the realization of this curse has revealed the essential soundness of the national heart. If child labor is a general evil, the general recognition of this evil has brought — in the recent successive victories of child labor legislation — the most conspicuous evidence of the inherent right-mindedness of American life with which I am familiar. In Texas, in Alabama, in South Carolina, in North Carolina, in Virginia, Illinois, New Hampshire, New York, — in state after state, in locality after locality, — the common conscience of the land has pierced the sophistries by which men would bind the children to the drudgery of factory and mine, and has written its solicitude and its compassions in the terms of law.

Much of this legislation has been inadequate. In some states it has represented the effort to reaffirm and to reenforce the intention of older statutes; in other states it has represented the first explicit recognition of the state's responsibility toward the more defenceless elements of an industrial society, toward the potential citizenship of the industrial child. In all cases, however, whether in response to the demand for law enactment or for law enforcement — the heart of our country, north and south, has shown itself to be a sound heart, and the soul of the Republic has kept watch above its children. When we contrast the recent victories of child labor legislation, victories so speedily secured, with the long struggle of the heroic Shaftesbury, we gather an evidence, a signal and gracious evidence, of one of the ennobling distinctions between his generation and our own.

In speaking to you this evening I wish, however, to deal as concretely and as definitely as I can with certain phases of the struggle for legislation in our southern states. I have consented to do so, not because I am worthy of the distinction which your chairman has just accorded me, but because an account of the controversial experience of one section, in relation to a great and vital industrial issue, may be of some possible value to the experience of other sections.

At a very early period in the history of our movement for legislation, our proposal of a child labor law was met by a counter-proposal. There were manufacturers who admitted the existence of evils, who lamented the prevalence of conditions which they protested that they were anxious to rectify, but who assured us that the real remedy was not the prohibition of child labor but the enforcement of compulsory education. The suggestion possessed an engaging plausibility. And yet I confess that I believe it to be well to survey with a watchful interest and a somewhat exacting analysis the remedies offered by those who have permitted, and who may have profited by, the very evils to be remedied. Under such conditions, the counter-proposal is sometimes only the most deceptive element in a neat and effective machinery of estoppel. This impression was not abated by an examination of the terms in which this proposal was conveyed. One of the most aggressive of its advocates was a representative of New England who has been largely interested in cotton-mill properties at the south. In the columns of the Evening Transcript, of Boston, he declared that the thing for Alabama to do was simply to follow the example of Massachusetts, pass a law for compulsory education, and, presto, the problem would be solved. We found, however, that the physician was not ready for his remedy. He was careful to add that any compulsory education law which might be passed in Alabama should "of course" not become operative till after the passage of similar laws in the states of North Carolina, South Carolina, and Georgia. This enthusiasm for reform, only on condition that all the rest of the world will reform too, is somewhat familiar to the students of the history of economic progress.

I do not quite know why the representative of Massachusetts investments at the south should have opposed a child labor law and should have insisted upon a compulsory education law, why he should have felt compelled to reject one method of reform because Alabama would not accept another, but men have been known to attempt the blocking of a reform which is clearly possible, by the safe but vigorous proposal of a reform which is impossible. That a child labor law was practicable, and that under our local conditions a compulsory education law was impracticable and impossible, was evident to the vast majority of the friends of progress in Alabama.

The counter-proposal was as inadequate as it was impracticable. What would compulsory education mean in our southern states? Would such a provision mean at the south what a similar measure would mean in the states of the north? It has been so assumed, and while the proposal has been urged upon us our northern friends have naturally made their mental pictures, pictures constructed from the materials of their local experience, in which they have seen the children freed from the mills by the simple operation of a nine-months compulsory attendance upon the schools. But at the time when this suggestion of compulsory education was urged — with such commendable unction — upon the friends of protective legislation at the south, the public school term of the Carolinas was but 76 days and the public school term of Alabama was but 78 days! Those terms are somewhat longer now. And yet you can easily see that, with so inadequate a school term, this counter-proposal of compulsory education could hardly have been regarded as a counter-remedy. Even if adopted, it would have left the children of our humbler classes, for the greater part of the year, entirely available for the factories. The program made possible by this counter-proposal could have been expressed within a sentence: — "For the little children of the poor, — three months in the school, nine months in the mill!"

Whatever the advantages of a policy of compulsory education, I think you will at once agree with me that such a measure could be no adequate substitute for a child labor law. It is obviously true that we cannot reach a comprehensive bettering

of conditions by the mere enactment of an age-limit for employment, nor by any of the expedients of a purely negative and corrective legislation. All this we have not failed to realize. But we have thought it best to do for the children of the factories the one best possible thing now obtainable in our southern states; for, if we cannot yet secure for every child a fixed attendance upon the school, we can at least secure for the younger children that industrial freedom which will afford them the possibility of the school. If we cannot compel them to be educated we can at least permit them to be educated. And how men who claim to be in favor of compulsory education can, at the same time, oppose the prohibition of child labor is somewhat difficult for the uninstructed intelligence to understand, — inasmuch as the present factory system of our country, with its low wages and its long hours, obviously represents as it touches the lives of the children, a system of compulsory ignorance.

The movement for the prohibition of the labor, in factories, of our children under twelve, has also been opposed by what I have regarded as a mistaken commercial prejudice. A few representatives of our "business interests," under the leadership of some of the narrower trade journals of the south, have disputed the wisdom of protective legislation. Such opposition was inevitable. It has made plausible appeals to familiar forces. "Business" is everywhere a word of mighty omen. It is altogether natural that it should be so. At the south, especially, we have come to look with peculiar appreciation upon those practical and material forces which have wrought the rehabilitation of the land. After the desolation of war, and after the more bitter desolation of the period which followed war, it is inevitable that the question of bread-winning should have become with many of our people a question of absorbing and paramount importance. "Prosperity," commercial and industrial "prosperity" has been a name of mystic and constraining force. To invite "prosperity" has been a form of patriotism. To alienate "prosperity" has seemed almost like apostasy.

When, therefore, we offered the proposals of protective legislation for the children we were met with protests. We were greeted with indignant questions. "Do you not see that this legis-

lation will touch the cotton factories?" "Do you not know that the cotton factories are the agents of prosperity?" "Do you want to compromise or to arrest the prosperity of the south?" "Do you not know that this child-labor law is an attack upon business?" It was thus that we were questioned; and yet such questions, I submit to you, were in themselves as gross and as insidious an insult as was ever offered to the business and the prosperity of our southern states. For what do they imply? They imply, if they mean anything whatver, that there is some inherent and essential connection between the prosperity of the south and the labor of little children under twelve years of age. They imply that the business success of the south is in some way involved in the right to throw the burdens of employment upon the immature. They carry the suggestion that our material progress is dependent upon unwholesome economic and humanitarian conditions, and that the development of the south is possibly contingent upon the prolonged, enforced and unnatural labor of the defenceless and the helpless. I resent that imputation. I resent that suggestion not only in the name of the south at large, but in the name of the business interests and the conservative commercial forces of our southern states; and I contend that from these laws to protect our children under twelve no damage can result to our business interests, — no damage comparable to the damage which would result from the general acceptance of the impression that child labor is the basis of our success, and that with the restriction of child labor there would follow a restriction of our industrial development.

Believe me, the forces which are injuring the prosperity and compromising the industrial repute of the south are the agencies, political or journalistic, which have tended to give currency to that assumption and which, by their opposition to protective legislation for the younger children, have made our progress synoymous, in many minds, with the baser methods and the retrogressive policies of production. These are the agencies which, despite their lavish zeal, are injuring the standing of southern investments and southern properties. And I venture also to declare that the men who are to-day befriending the industrial south, are the men, men in commerce, in the trades, in the profes-

sions, men of every phase of contemporary southern experience, who in five states of the south have rejected this leadership of the opposition, have welcomed the prohibition of the labor of the younger children, and have given notice to the world that the prosperity of the south is based not on the labor of the immature, but on the fertility of her fields, the advantages of her climate, her cotton, her ores, her forests, her waters, and — above all — upon the character and the capacities of her manhood.

We have also been met by the manifestation of what I must not hesitate to call a false humanitarian prejudice. We have been assured that "these children are much better off in the mills than they were out of the mills." And indeed I confess it to be somewhat hard to answer the arguments of those who end by defending as a benefit what they have begun by denying as an evil. We were first assured that there were practically no little children in the mills. The reports of the Twelfth Census of the United States (Bulletin No. 215, on Cotton Manufactures) show that in the States outside the south the relative number of the cotton-mill employees under 16 years of age had, in twenty years, been reduced from 15.6 per cent to 7.7 per cent; but that in the cotton mills of the south, during this period from 1880 to 1900, the relative number of the operatives under 16 years of age had remained at approximately 25 per cent! Yet we were assured that few of these were under twelve. Just how many, as a matter of fact, were under twelve, no man can accurately say. We began our movement for reforms with every effort to secure the definite data of exact conditions. Weeks were spent in laborious investigation, only to find that the evidence was contradicted as rapidly as it was collected. The most notorious facts were subjected to solemn and peremptory denial. We soon found that our best recourse in debate, a recourse abundantly convincing, was simply to assume what our opponents were on every hand compelled, conspicuously, to admit. On one day we might find the representatives of the factories declaring that the mills contained practically no children under twelve; but on the next day we found them thronging the lobby of the legislature to prevent the passage of a law which might take those under twelve out of the factories. "Why," we asked, "do you oppose a law prohibiting something

which nobody wants to do — why object to the abridgment of a liberty which nobody wishes to exercise?" Under such persuasions it was hard to believe that there were no factories employing or desiring the employment, of the younger children. And yet these protestations have become an interesting evidence of sensitiveness. It is interesting to discover that the employment of the younger children, the children for whom legislation had been invoked, was thus denied, emphatically, as an evil.

Yet strangely enough we straightway find that their employment is admitted and defended as a benefit. We are told that "these children are much better off in the mills than they were in the places where they came from." I question whether it is ever fair to estimate our duty to the child by the disadvantages of its past. But is the contention true? Is the labor of the mills a philanthropic provision for the children under twelve? To hear some of our opponents dwell upon the mill as a philanthropy you would suppose the average child could find in the average cotton mill a comprehensive educational equipment— a sort of institutional civilizer — kindergarten, grammar school, high school, university, — and a trip to Europe, all in one. Do not believe one word of it! It is true, in some instances, that the general condition of the child at the mills is better and happier than the condition of the same child before coming to the mills. I say "in some instances," because in many cases the child is less fortunate than before. But, in the cases in which the change is a change to better things, — is the bettering of the fortune of the child the result of child labor, or the result of the general bettering of the conditions of the family? Let us be clear about this.

It is true that the outward lot of the child of the mill family is sometimes better than that of the poor white child of "the country." But where this is true, it is true not because of child labor, but in spite of it. There are men at the east who claim that the condition of the child in the sweat-shop is a "vast improvement" on the condition of the child in the crowded foreign city where it once lived. Does that prove that the sweatshop labor of its tiny hands is responsible for the change? No! Is child labor responsible for the better condition of the factory child? Its life may share in the general improvement of con-

ditions, but the child, instead of receiving, as childhood should, the maximum of immunity from distress, and the largest freedom which the new environment affords, is bearing in its tender strength the greatest burdens and the heaviest curse of the new prosperity. Let us not be guilty of mental confusion. Let us not credit the good fortune of the family to the misfortune of the child.

The cotton mills, indeed our factories of every sort, are bringing their blessings to the south. They are touching with inspiring and creative power the fate of many of the poorer people of our isolated localities, are enabling them to shift the industrial basis of their lives from the conditions of agriculture, in which many of them have failed, to the conditions of manufacture, in which I trust they will at length succeed. Let us grant, not reluctantly but gladly, the blessings of the factory. But let us stick, resolutely and persistently, to the question now at issue. That question is not the economic and social advantage of the factory. Upon that we are all agreed. The question now at issue is not the question as to whether the factory is an advantage, but the question as to whether the advantages and the blessings of the factory, to the community or to the child, are based upon the labor of our children under twelve. That is our question. I yield all honor to our factories. I yield instant and explicit tribute to those men among us — no matter how greatly they may differ with me upon the question of child labor — who have given of their abilities and their fortunes to the upbuilding of the industrial South. But I protest that the economic and social advantage of the factory has nothing whatever to do with this question in debate; and I further protest that when these questions are confused, when men assume that the advantages of the factory to the community or to the child are based upon the monotonous and confining labor of our little children, they are wronging not merely the community and the children but our factories as well.

In the course of this discussion at the south, there has been much appeal to the interests of an undiscriminating industrial policy. There is much prejudice against labor unionism. The

south, upon economic and social issues, is intensely and overwhelmingly conservative. Because, therefore, the child labor bills have had the sympathy of the labor unions, there have been men who have attacked them as "labor" measures. They have opposed a child labor law because the labor unions have approved it. Such men, if they followed the logic of their argument would go back on the ten commandments if the labor unions should make a declaration of sympathy with the decalogue! Now, I hold no brief for the labor unions. I am free to say, however, that when the capitalist opposes protective legislation for our children on the ground that the labor union has approved it, he injures the interests of capital far more than he injures the interests of the union. I can tell our friend the capitalist — and he is my friend— that just now the most striking and the most general encouragement to labor unionism in this section of our country is the fact that, upon the one most vital, most practical, most popular industrial issue before the south to-day, labor unionism has got upon the right side, and "capital" has too often been upon the wrong side. Strictly from the selfish standpoint of the capitalistic interest, what is the inevitable result of the joining of such an issue? That result might easily have been predicted. The popular sympathy, the public opinion of the south has been drawn as never before to the side of labor unionism, and it has come to question, as never before, some of the characteristic methods and policies of organized capital. In a conflict between the organized forces of labor and the organized forces of the employers it was absolutely inevitable, as the whole history of civilization might have informed us, that the great common, fundamental instincts of humanity were bound to go to the side which has represented the need and the appeal of the defenceless. I am glad to say that thousands of the business men of the south have recognized this fact, have recognized it not only in justice to themselves but in justice to our children of the mills, and have labored in season and out of season for wise and righteous measures of reform.

These are the men who have represented the wiser and higher conscience of our industrial development. For we touch, at this point, certain profounder issues in the industrial policy of the south, than the mere issue between unionism and cap-

italism. One is an issue which touches the ethical assumptions, the moral standards of our economic progress; the other touches the old, old controversy between sagacity and stupidity, between wisdom and folly, between justice and selfishness as we deal with the human factors of industrial greatness.

The south has one great characteristic natural product — her cotton. In its possession she is without a rival. Her monopoly may be challenged, but her preëminence will remain. Upon the basis of this great and characteristic natural product we are creating a great, characteristic and commanding industry — cotton manufacture. Its successes and its victories are as inevitable as they are desirable. It can have no enemies unless we constitute ourselves its enemies. It can have no perils unless we ourselves found it in embarrassment and league it with disaster. Its growth, its triumphs, its opportunities, its rewards, its infamy or its glory, are a part of the distinctive heritage of our children and of our children's children. What is the basis of this industry? What shall be its economic and moral character? How are we settling it and founding it? This is the issue, the intimate and inclusive issue, of this question of child labor at the south. I am interested therefore in the question of child labor, not merely because I have photographed children of six and seven years whom I have seen at labor in our factories for twelve and thirteen hours a day, not merely because I have seen them with their little fingers mangled by machinery and their little bodies numb and listless with exhaustion, but because I am not willing that our economic progress should be involved in such conditions; and because as a southern man, born, reared, and educated at the south, I am resolved to take my part, however humbly, in the settling of the industrial character of our greatest industry. For the very reason that I belong to the south, and because I love the south, I do not want her most important and most distinctive industry to stand under any sort of odium, moral or economic. I believe that an intelligent moral interest in the conditions of the factory, and the jealous guarding of its ethical assumptions, will minister not merely to the humanity of its standards and the happiness of its operatives, but to the dignity, currency and value of its properties. In the interest of its suc-

cess as well as in the interest of its renown, I wish the repute of our greatest industry to be as fair as the white fields of our cotton. Commanding the economic and moral confidence of the investors in our securities, of the spectators of our progress, of the enlightened and approving opinion of mankind, I wish it to take its place among us as one of the noblest of the characteristic and constructive forces of our country and of our civilization.

We must, moreover, settle once for all the industrial policy of the south as that policy touches the human factors of industrial greatness. In thinking so much about sociology, let us not forget to think a little about childhood, — nor about childhood only, but also about the children. The two things are not synonymous. Such are the academic hypocrisies of humanity that the "age of chivalry," the age which talked so nobly and so inordinately of womanhood, did comparatively little for its women. And our age, which talks very beautifully of childhood and the child, is finding, in its entrancing preoccupations, much opportunity to neglect its children.

To this neglect the south cannot and — I thank God — will not yield. If the cotton, the crude material of our textile industries, is peculiarly the south's, so the human factors of our industry are also ours. The children of the northern mills — as Miss Addams could inform you — are largely the children of the foreigner. If the northern states can legislate to protect the children of the foreigner, surely we can legislate to protect the children of the south. I speak not in jealousy of the foreigner — God forbid — but I dare not speak in forgetfulness of our own, of the children of these humbler people of our southern soil — a people native to our section and our interests, of our own race and blood, slowly preparing for their share in the advancing largeness of our life, and worthy, through their children of today, to constitute an ever increasing factor in the broader and happier citizenship of our future years.

They are called a "poor" white people; but, from that knowledge of them which has come through a long experience of affectionate and familiar contact, I can say that their poverty is not the essential poverty of inward resources but rather the temporary and incidental poverty of unfortunate conditions.

They are rich in capacities and aptitudes. The exploitation of their children, though their own ignorance may sometimes make them a party to its processes, is a crime not only against the rights of the defenceless but a crime against the economic progress and the industrial future of the south. Why, the man upon the farm does not put the burden of sustained employment upon the immature among his cattle! Shall we be less solicitous of our children? If cotton manufacture is to continue to thrive at the south, it can do so only upon the basis of the intelligence and efficiency of its operatives. Ignorance and helplessness may make the profits of an hour, but the increasing and abiding wealth of a great industry lies only in the hands of knowledge, capacity and skill. Sustained labor in the factory has always tended to arrest the mental and physical development of the child and so to lower the productive power of the operative class. The south makes comparatively small gains from immigration. The sacrifice of the childhood of our poorer people, the exhaustion of their best skill and of their fullest vigor and intelligence, means nothing less than the exploitation of our one indigenous industrial population, the real hope of the textile future of our southern states.

But, my friends, these children are no mere factors of industry. They are vital and personal factors of our country and of our humanity. They are heirs with us of this immediate and present day, this day of vivid human interests, — of imperious reciprocities, of ever-enlarging fidelities, between land and land, between class and class, between life and life. They are the heirs with us of a deeper and more compelling patriotism. Back of the patriotism of arms, back of the patriotism of our political and civic life, there lies, like a new and commanding social motive, the patriotism of efficiency. Every interest, every institution, every activity of our day must reckon with it. It is the patriotism of industrial power. It is the patriotism of social fitness and of economic value. It is the passion of usefulness. It is the love of being useful, and therefore the love of helping others into usefulness. The child must be worth something to his country; his country must be worth something to the world. In

the interest of our country and of our world, it covets for every human life that emancipation which means the freeing of capacity.

It is this patriotism which we shall invoke, north and south, in behalf of every wounded, helpless, defenceless element of our industrial society. It realizes that the good of one life comes only out of the fulness of all life; that no power is safe which reposes solely upon the weakness of another; that no liberty is safe which depends upon the slavery of another; that no knowledge is safe or sound which bases itself upon the ignorance of another; and that no wealth has reached the fulness of its distinction and its happiness which depends for its existence solely upon the poverty of others. It is to the immediate interest of every man, that every other man should have something to give. In so far as every life becomes a producer and a contributor, every other life becomes a beneficiary.

Thus the meaning of patriotism is but the nerve and instinct of society. To bring others into their own believing, hoping and loving — this is religion; to share with others the powers of acquiring, and thriving and rejoicing — this is wealth; to open to others the liberties of thinking and knowing and achieving — this is education; to enlarge for others the glory of living — this is life; to behold the great thronging masses of men alive and radiant with those capacities and efficiencies which redeem the waste and silence of the world, — this is indeed the supreme efficiency, and this, I believe to be the supreme patriotism.

USE AND ABUSE OF FACTORY INSPECTION.

BY MRS. FLORENCE KELLEY, SECRETARY OF THE NATIONAL CONSUMERS' LEAGUE.

The use of factory inspection is the uniform, effective enforcement of the legislation upon the statute book with the least injury to industry, and the careful protection of the rights of all the employees, including the children. When we buy an article we ought to be assured that it has been made under clean and wholesome conditions and in accordance with the law of the state and that, therefore, no one has suffered overwork or other injury in the process of producing it. If the factory laws are not enforced we are deprived of this assurance; and we are, in fact deprived of it almost always, even when the factory is in a state which maintains officers for the express purpose of enforcing the law. This is because in most states our officials are appointed under a system so shameful that honorable men and women speedily learn by bitter experience that, if *they* enforce the factory law they are replaced by persons less zealous. No adequate, organized, alert public opinion, such as is embodied in this Conference, has hitherto supported the faithful officers enforcing the factory laws by prosecutions. The American public has thus failed to derive from its factory laws both the protection from disease and the ease of mind and conscience which are to be had where factory laws are uniformly effectively enforced.

For instance, no child labor law enforces itself. It must be enforced by the conscience of the community by which it is enacted. It is perfectly possible to have a community so law-abiding that, after a law is enacted, the work of the factory inspectors becomes chiefly a process of calling the attention of employers to unintentional oversights. Indeed, there is one state in which the people are so habitually law-abiding that, in four years of frequent visiting of factories, I have seen no infraction of the complicated and stringent labor code, — I refer to the Commonwealth of Massachusetts. But I know of no other state in which the people answer this description. The present relation

of Massachusetts manufacturers and their employees to the code seems to be largely due to a quarter of a century of experience of uniform effective enforcement.

It has been a profound misfortune of the working children of the United States that most of the legislation enacted for their protection has been secured by the unaided efforts of the labor organizations. By the public at large it has been generally assumed that such legislation was desired selfishly in the interest of the adult laborers eager to be free from the competition of the children. The need on the part of society that the children be protected has only recently come to any general recognition; and meanwhile it has been assumed in the same light-minded manner, that the interests of the laboring children are safe in the hands of the wage-earners. One result of this assumption is the fact that in nearly every state the men and women selected to perform the duty of enforcing the factory laws and the child labor laws have been chosen not because they had had any previous experience in inspecting, or were gifted with administrative ability of a high order, but because they were first politicians and then acceptable to the organizations of labor.

Factory inspection has long been seen at its worst in Illinois, in Pennsylvania and in New Jersey where, in all three states the same great industry for a series of years controlled the appointment of the chief state inspector of factories. It has never been possible in these states to stop the work of little boys at night in glass works because the factory inspector (certainly in Illinois and Pennsylvania), had long been the servant of the great glass companies before being transferred from their pay rolls to those of the state.

The past year deserves commemoration by reason of the removal from office in two of these great manufacturing states, Illinois and Pennsylvania, of chief factory inspectors previously appointed in the interest of the glass industry for the purpose of preventing the enforcement of existing child-labor statutes and the enactment of new and more stringent ones; and by reason of the enactment in the third of these states, New Jersey, of a law expressly authorizing the governor of the state to remove the chief factory inspector. In Illinois Louis Arrington was re-

moved after holding office since 1897, previous to which date he had for twenty-seven years served the Illinois Glass Company not only in its works at Alton but in Washington where he appeared before congressional committees (at the expense of the company but in the name of the workingmen) whenever there appeared to be danger of a reduction of the tariff upon glass products. Throughout his term of office as Chief Inspector there were no prosecutions of open and flagrant violations of the child-labor law by glass manufacturers. In Pennsylvania Governor Pennypacker has deserved the thanks of all the working children for removing from the office of chief factory inspector, James Campbell, long an officer of the Glass Workers' Unions of the Pittsburg district, who for many years successfully blocked every effort to enforce or improve the belated child-labor law of that commonwealth, which permits the employment of illiterate children throughout the day or the night.

In New Jersey Governor Franklin Murphy, having been expressly authorized by the state legislature to do so, may reasonably be expected to remove from office in the near future the chief factory inspector who has not alone disgraced that state by failing to prosecute companies which employ children notoriously under the legal age for beginning to work, but has stolidly refused to carry to the court of Errors and Appeals throughout his entire term of office any case of the violation of the very enlightened law which restricts to fifty-five hours the working week of women and children under sixteen years of age."

Factory inspection is seen at its best in Massachusetts where the honored head of the district police, Rufus Wade, has filled the position of chief inspector of factories for three and twenty years. His subordinates hold office during good behavior. This means, in Massachusetts, devotion of life, health and intelligence to the protection of the weak, the defenceless, the ignorant, and the poor, not alone against the impositions of others but against the results of their own weakness, ignorance, and poverty. Not only are hours of labor regulated, children preserved from night work and kept in school by day, wages assured in full and promptly to such as have earned them; not only are life and limb of the workers secured by skillful watch kept upon boilers and

dangerous machinery, but the health of the purchasing public is protected at risk of illness, and of death itself, on the part of the factory inspectors.

Three different times has one inspector of the garment trades followed the path of duty into the sick room where a patient lay ill of malignant diphtheria, while garments in process of manufacture were exposed to the presence of the germs of that dreaded disease. Each time that faithful officer contracted diphtheria, carried it home to his family, and twice lost a child of his own by death. This hero of the civic warfare against law-breaking is deputy Factory Inspector Griffin, garment trades inspector of the state of Massachusetts.

Whenever public opinion in the other states demands similar standards of work and assures like tenure of office, there will be no more abuses of factory inspection, and discussions like this will be superfluous. But not until then!

THE SOCIAL AND MEDICAL ASPECTS OF CHILD LABOR.

BY FREDERICK L. HOFFMAN, NEW JERSEY.

In its final analysis every social or economic problem is one of health and morals, using both terms in their widest possible sense. The first Act ever passed for the improvement of the conditions of child wage-earners was properly entitled "The Health and Morals of Apprentice Act of 1802." During the intervening century, enormous progress has been made in a great many directions, but perhaps in none so much as in the clear recognition of the rights of children to their own childhood, and adequate protection against all that would tend to undermine the physical and moral constitution. It has properly been said that were the young man to write down a list of his duties, health would be the first item in the catalogue, and this is no exaggeration of its value, since it is indispensable to almost every

form of human enjoyment and the grand auxiliary of usefulness. Lecky, the historian and moralist, points out that to raise the level of national health is one of the surest ways to raise the level of national happiness, and that no branch of legislation is more really valuable than that which is occupied with the health of the people. How different, he observes, would have been the condition of the world, and how very much greater would have been the popularity of strong monarchies if at the time when such form of government prevailed, rulers had had the intelligence to pay better for the improvement of the health and the prolongation of the lives of their subjects as the main part of their policy, rather than to secure military glory, or the acquisition of territory, or mere ostentatious and selfish delay. It is from this point of view that we should approach the so-called child labor problem, and the necessity of possible restrictive legislation is readily made apparent by evidence as to whether any given industry, or employment at any given age, is detrimental and destructive to health and morals, and likely to produce the premature shortening of human life.

NUMBER OF CHILD WAGE EARNERS.

We do not know, even with approximate certainty, the number of children employed at gainful occupations. The Census data relative to occupations by ages have not yet been published and our only source of accurate information is the report on manufactures, according to which some one hundred and seventy thousand (170,000) children under the age of sixteen, are at work in this group of industries. We do not know how many are ten, eleven, twelve and thirteen years of age, but it is quite probable and reasonable to suppose that the large majority of these children are of fourteen and fifteen years of age; in other words, employed at ages, which, from the point of view of the average man, form the period of entering into active industry or commercial life. About one hundred thousand (100,000) children under sixteen are stated to have been employed in ten principal industries, and of these the most important are the textile manufactures, the glass, tobacco and printing industries. There

are some forty thousand (40,000) children employed in cotton manufacture, forming 13 per cent. of the total wage-earners in that particular employment. The proportion is about the same in the glass industry, while in the manufacture of hosiery, silk, and in fruit canning establishments the proportion of child wage-earners is about 10 per cent. Children are usually employed in industries in which the sub-division of labor is carried to a high degree of perfection, which is now the recognized condition of all efficient material production. Whatever serious effects this extreme sub-division of labor has had upon the minds of adults, it is quite safe to concede that the effects of highly specialized industries must be more serious on the more plastic mind of the child.

ECONOMICS OF CHILD LABOR.

It is not however for us to consider the economic justification of child employment, even though it were readily apparent that the industrial training were of value, or that the wages earned proved a useful addition to the family income. To us the sole and all-important consideration is whether the child passes through the early years of its employment without permanent injury to its bodily, mental and moral development, for it has well been said that "It is never enough in education any more than in the productive arts to look solely at results. We must look at product in relation to its cost." It is from this point of view that we propose to deal with the subject.

The physical and mental condition of children and young persons employed in industry has received more or less careful consideration since the subject was first brought to general public attention through the results of an extensive inquiry by the British Parliamentry Commission during the early thirties. From that date to this, numerous investigations have been made in England and other countries, and general observations have been supplemented by careful physical measurements as to the physical development of children at work in different occupations. Although the results of these investigations prove conclusively that evil conditions existed on a large scale, yet after all, the unfortunate conditions disclosed were rather evidence of abuse, than

proof of evils inherent in the rational employment of children at gainful occupations. What Lecky says of sanitary reforms as promoted by governments applies to restrictive legislation and state interference or control of all industry, namely, that "The best judges are of opinion that such interference may easily be pushed to dangerous extremes."

RATIONAL CONDITION OF CHILD LABOR.

All of the numerous reports which have been made on the physical condition of factory children contain a mass of evidence, proving conclusively that children under proper conditions can remain at work without serious injury or detriment to their physical, mental, or moral growth. As pointed out by the Commissioners of 1832, "With few exceptions, *there is nothing in the nature of the employments* included in the present inquiry directly injurious to health, but they are often pursued under circumstances which manifestly interrupt the nutritive functions and check the growth of the body." The easiest way out of the difficulty was, of course, the absolute prohibition of child labor in factories below certain ages, and from the age ten during the early part of the nineteenth century the minimum age has been raised until it is now in most countries from thirteen to fourteen, while advocates of extreme child labor legislation have not hesitated to go so far as to demand that the minimum limit should be placed at sixteen and even eighteen years of age. There appears to be no physical basis for any such serious interference with the natural and rational development of the child as an effective element in the general social economy.

The recognition of possible abuse and of serious and lasting injury to the physical and moral nature of the child as the result of employment is incorporated in a request of the Massachusetts Legislature some thirty years ago, that the State Board of Health inquire into the health of minors employed in the textile industries of that state. As a result of this request, there was published in 1871 a report containing comparative mortality data, showing conclusively that the mortality of children employed in the textile industries had been higher than the mortality of the

total population. It was shown that at ages ten to fourteen the death-rate among wage-earning children was 5.5 per 1,000, agains 5.1 for the total population. The mortality from consumption among this class of children was shown to have been 1.2 per 1,000 against 0.7 for the total population. In other words, the actual mortality of such children had been higher than the expected mortality on the basis of the general death rate, and further the mortality from consumption was much greater, indeed almost twice as high, among children employed in textile industries than among the children of the total population of Massachusetts. The differences, however, were not sufficiently great to warrant sweeping conclusions, in that most of these children were of the comparatively poor element of the population, (a fact very frequently overlooked), who, for reasons of unsanitary housing, etc., would not be expected to show as favorable a death-rate as the general population. The suggestion of the Board for a more comprehensive investigation of the entire subject was not carried out.

PHYSICAL BASIS OF CHILD LABOR.

In 1876 a very exhaustive investigation into the physical requirements of factory children was made by Mr. Chas. Roberts and read before the London Statistical Society. Mr. Roberts made extensive anthropometric investigations and covered practically the entire ground for a physical basis of factory employment. He points out that the law then in force required that all children up to the age of sixteen years, as a condition of employment in any factory, must produce a certificate of age and physical capability for work. The great difficulty in determining the age of children in the absence of an official certificate of birth is recognized, and Mr. Roberts points out that there are no physical qualities sufficiently distinct and constant to determine the age of a child within two, and often three, years of its actual birhday. But he also recognizes that age itself is not a recognition of any constant physical qualities, and that a certificate of birth is not a sufficient indication of fitness for factory work and that, therefore, it cannot take the place of a proper medical examination.

The point here recognized by Mr. Roberts forms the fundamental basis of all efforts to deal with the child labor problem in a rational way. The problem is complicated by the absence of a satisfactory standard of physical proportions and of physical fitness for any given employment. Even the tables given by Mr. Roberts and the minimum physical proportions required fall short of the actual requirements, in that they only apply to factory labor and not to employments in shops, stores, offices, etc. In other words, there are certain occupations which require a higher physical development than others, although a definite minimum physical requirement might be readily adopted, by means of which a very large proportion of the least fit would be excluded.

Mr. Roberts advances certain conclusions as to the relations existing between age and stature, chest measurement and weight, for the purpose of forming minimum standards, similar to those used for the examination of recruits for the army and navy. He advances the proposition that all children too short of stature should be excluded as physically unfit. He fixes the minimum of height at eight years of age at forty-two inches, at nine years, forty-four inches, at ten years, forty-six inches, etc. Similar application is made of the average and normal variation of chest, girth and weight. At eight years, for example, the minimum weight below which children should not be employed is forty-five pounds, at nine years, it is forty-nine pounds, at ten, fifty-three pounds, etc.

STANDARD PHYSICAL REQUIREMENTS.

We have in these recommendations the first definite suggestion for a physical basis for factory employment, deduced from a large number of observations, and it would be possible to frame definite standards which could be applied irrespective of the actual age within at least two or three years and which could be relied upon to exclude to a certainty practically all children physically unfit for continued employment. It may not be out of place in passing to note that Mr. Roberts points out the remarkable improvement in the condition of factory children in the forty years intervening between 1833 and 1873. He shows that in 1833 the average weight of a child at age nine was fifty-two

pounds, whereas forty-two years later the average weight was fifty-nine pounds, and corresponding improvements were noted at other ages, so that a factory child in 1873 at the age of nine years weighed as much as one of ten did in 1833. These gains would have been impossible but for the sanitary conditions and physical requirements under which factory children are now permitted to work in England and the resulting *radical exclusion of certain undesirable physical types,* which under no circumstances should be exposed to the well understood, deleterious influences of factory employment.

A PLEA FOR STRONG AND HEALTHY CHILDREN.

Before I proceed with a discussion of the available anthropometric data and the necessary further investigation of the subject in this country, it may not be out of place to touch briefly upon the recognition of the preceding points by American writers on the physical aspects of child labor. To Mrs. Florence Kelley belongs the credit of having early recognized the importance of this subject and of having persistently and on every possible occasion brought facts and observations to the attention of the public. Most of the Labor Reports and Reports of Factory Inspectors since 1890, contain references to the physical and mental aspects of child labor. At the Annual Convention of the American Federation of Labor held in Detroit in December, 1890, President Gompers pointed out that "Our centres of industry, with their mills, factories, and workshops, are teeming with young and innocent children, bending their weary forms with long hours of daily drudgery, with pinched and wan cheeks, and emaciated frames, dwarfed both physically and mentally, and frequently driving them to premature decay and death." The Labor Report of Connecticut for 1902 contains the collective evidence of a number of physicians, who, almost without exception, concede that factory employment is likely to result in a serious physical impairment. One physician writes that after eleven years of practice among the families employed in cotton mills he has time and again noticed that the children at from thirteen to sixteen, or even more years, are pale, apparently of undergrowth, and lack

in vigor. A practicing physician of Norwich, while conceding possible evil results in consequence of factory employment, recognizes that *if health permits* the law ought not to say you can have no employment except on the farm or at school, but the fourteenth year would be a better limit for boys, and the fifteenth year for girls. The reports for Ohio, for North Carolina, for Wisconsin, Michigan and Minnesota contain similar references, which may be summarized in the statement that child labor affects seriously the coming generation by taking away from the children their opportunity for development, and the conclusion that "Society must protect itself and cannot afford to permit the employment of its children at the expense of such education and physical development as will fit them for their future duties in life."

Numerous as these references are to the physical aspects of child labor, nobody seems to have thought it worth while to collect the necessary evidence required for all far-reaching social legislation. One important exception, perhaps, should be noted and that is a paper on child labor in Hull-house Maps and Papers, by Mrs. Florence Kelley and Mrs. A. P. Stevens, of the Illinois Board of Factory Inspectors. Physical examinations were made of one hundred and thirty-five factory children and each child was weighed and measured and otherwise tested as to its physical condition. Twenty-nine of the children were found to be undersize, but otherwise normal; thirty-four, or 20%, of the number were refused certificates because of important physical defects. The writers conclude that this record indicates an appalling deterioration of the rising generation of the wage-earning class. The product of our industry, they claim, is an army of toiling children, undersized, rachitic, deformed, predisposed to consumption, if not already tuberculous. Permanently enfeebled by the labor imposed upon them during the critical years of development, these children will inevitably fail in the early years of manhood and womanhood. Unfortunately the details regarding the measurements were not given so as to offer a ready means of further analysis, and the number examined was entirely too small to warrant the far-reaching and emphatic conclusions advanced.

ACCURATE AND DETERMINING DATA WANTING.

There is, unfortunately, a tendency in all social endeavor to overlook the necessity of a thoroughly well established basis of facts, and to exaggerate the importance of exceptional individual instances of abuse. The literature of child labor during the past ten or fifteen years abounds with startling assertions and allegations, which on their very face give evidence of a very imperfect method of collecting the facts. Thus in a well-known treatise on economics a Western college professor is quoted as having stated before this body in 1897 that "In the large stamping works and canning factories in a city like Chicago, not a day passes but some child is made a helpless cripple." For this statement, it is hardly necessary to say, there is absolutely no basis of fact. Before the Convention of Factory Inspectors in 1893 one of the speakers advanced the conclusion that there were some two million children employed as wage-earners in this country, *all* of whom "had been robbed of their growth and mental training." She does not furnish one iota of evidence to support the statement, which, if true, might well arouse the whole nation. She enumerates a number of unhealthy employments, but not in a single instance does she furnish statistical data of observed disease prevalence or trustworthy medical testimony of industrial poisoning among child-workers, nor does she give an analysis of death certificates of children employed in different industries to support these sweepinig and emphatic conclusions. In one of these statements she goes so far as to say that "some of the boys in glass works walk from seventy-five to eighty miles a day."

I have personally investigated the condition of child-workers in glass factories in southern New Jersey, and I am absolutely satisfied that, taking all things into consideration, the children at work are as healthy and as happy a body as one is likely to meet with anywhere. There are children at work in these factories who ought to be excluded on a rational physical standard of fitness for factory employment, but in the absence of such a standard it is impossible to disprove the false statements as to the age of the child. One speaker at the same convention made the statement that the child wage-earners "swell the army of illiter-

ates and add to the inmates of houses of prostitution and fill the cells of penal institutions to overflowing." This statement is an unqualified falsehood, and in fact, there is no evidence, statistical or otherwise, that child-workers, as the result of their employment, lead afterward immoral or criminal careers. Much to the contrary, there is the direct evidence of penal institutions that while of the total number committed to penitentiaries only 13% had insufficient education by the ordinary standard, 78% had received no systematic training in self-maintenance. It is a cruelly wrong charge to say that child-workers add to the inmates of houses of prostitution and fill the cells of penal institutions. It may not be out of place to quote from an early report of a prison inspector quoted by Law that "If we look into the history of those brought into the prison, we shall find that a large proportion were persons who had never formed habits of labor. In fact, they know not what labor is." This may be supplemented by a quotation from Lieber's Ethics of Politics that "Modern crime is much due to a want of fixed occupation," and further by a quotation from Froude that "The first business of education is to assist us in supporting ourselves."

The problem, then, which confronts us is that for the far-reaching conclusions advanced and for the far-reaching legislation proposed, there is an almost complete want of statistical and other trustworthy evidence, collected in a scientific manner and on a large scale. Much to the contrary is the view of one of the contributors to Oliver's Dangerous Trades that "you need not turn with confidence to the statistician for data as to the effect of half-time labor on the young and that it is indeed a little discouraging to reflect how little the statistician can help us in establishing the most obvious ill effects of child labor." It is argued that you cannot put tired eyes, pallid cheeks, and languid little limbs into statistics. As a matter of fact, there is nothing more readily determined by statistical treatment than evidence of inferior physical development, of ill nourishment, of mental growth, and even of dwarfed mentality. Most of the physical defects of the body and most of the defects of the mind are readily established by anthropometric measurements and tests, such as now have been brought to a high degree of perfection. What

is required is an exhaustive investigation of the entire subject, and that such an investigation should, if possible, be made under the direction of the U. S. Commissioner of Labor and by co-operation with the Office of Experiment Stations. The physical data of child wage-earners and others should be brought together and supplemented by nutrition investigations such as have been made by the Office of Experiment Stations into the nutrition and food of adults of various nationalities. As a suggestion, a blank form is proposed which is limited to certain essentials and which can readily be enlarged in accordance with suggestions from others more qualified to undertake this work. Such an investigation would be in harmony with other investigations into the social conditions of the American people made from time to time by the Commissioner of Labor and the results would once for all settle the question as to whether the child at work is really injured and inferior in physical and mental status in consequence of its employment at some gainful occupation.

Age of child — as stated ..... apparent .....
Male or female? .....
White or colored? .....
Nativity of parents? .....
Industry employed in? .....
Specific occupation followed? .....
At what age did employment begin? .....
What are the work hours in the morning? .....
What are the work hours in the afternoon? .....
What are the work hours in the evening? .....
What time is spent at school in the morning? .....
What time is spent at school in the afternoon? .....
What time is spent in the school in the evening? .....
Can the child read? .....
Can the child write? .....

Physical Condition.

General appearance .....
Does the child appear well nourished? .....
Does the child appear anaemic? .....
Does the child appear predisposed to consumption or respiratory diseases? .....
Does the child appear to suffer from chronic industrial poisoning? .....
Is the child suffering from any specific disease? .....

Has the child been sick during the year? If so, from what cause and how long? .....
What is the height (with shoes on)? .....
What is the weight (with clothing)? .....
What is the girth of chest? .....

Signed:

.....M. D.

OCCUPATION AND DISEASE.

It is necessary for us to keep clearly in mind one fact, which is readily admitted by all who have concerned themselves with questions of industrial hygiene, namely that "A man's occupation *must* after a longer or shorter period react upon his mental or corporal condition," and that it may safely be assumed that the effects of occupation on health are still more pronounced in the case of children or young persons. In other words, we observe the evil results following employment of many kinds, indoor and outdoor, at light or heavy labor, and it would be unfair to apply too severe a test to the employment of children in factories or otherwise. The available statistical evidence, while not as complete as would be desirable, seems to prove conclusively that occupations with a trade life commencing very early, such as the textile industries, potteries, etc., experience an excessive death-rate at ages 15 to 24, and in many instances throughout life. It is unfortunate that the subject has never been exhaustively inquired into and about the only extensive investigation has been made by the N. J. Bureau of Labor Statistics. It is shown that in certain industries the proportion of persons commencing work at ages below sixteen years was very large indeed, forming in the textile industries 81% of the total, and large proportions among stone-cutters, potters, wool-workers, bakers, cigar manufacturers, hatters, etc. These are all industries in which the trade life commences between the ages of twelve and sixteen years, and they are at the same time industries representing employments in which the mortality at certain ages is considerably above the average. The Census of 1900 gives some interesting and fairly conclusive data on the subject, which have been incorporated in a tabular form, showing the death-rate at ages fifteen to twenty-four per 1,000 living.

COMPARATIVE MORTALITY OF MALES AND FEMALES — AGES 15-24 — CENSUS OF 1900 — REGISTRATION AREA.

Occupation.	Rate per 1,000.	Occupation.	Rate per 1,000.
Sailors	12.0	All Occupations	5.1
R. R. Service	8.9	Printers	5.0
Laborers	8.0	Saloon Keepers	4.9
Bookkeepers, etc.	7.7	Drivers, Teamsters	4.7
Servants	6.0	Glass-Workers	4.6
Cigars, Tobacco	5.9	Plumbers	4.6
Barbers	5.7	Bakers	4.5
Butchers	5.5	Merchants, Dealers	4.2
Hatters	5.4	Carpenters	4.2
Miners	5.4	Gardeners	3.9
Painters, Glaziers	5.3	Farmers	3.9
Masons	5.3	Iron & Steel Workers	3.2

This table shows that the mortality of sailors, men in railroad service, laborers, bookkeepers, servants, cigarmakers, barbers, butchers, hatters, miners, etc., are all very considerably above the average for persons in all occupations and very largely above the death-rate of gardeners and farmers. The results of the Census as to the excessive mortality among the young in certain occupations are fully supported by corresponding data for England and the Continental States of Europe.

MORTALITY OF WOMEN IN INDUSTRY.

They are further supported by the comparative mortality statistics of females, where the death-rate of servants, nurses, bookkeepers, clerks, and even of teachers, are above the average for all occupations. Mill and factory hands show a lower death-rate, due to the fact, no doubt, that girls employed in the textile industries leave their employment for the purpose of marrying before the occupation has materially undermined their constitution. While these data are not entirely conclusive, they are sufficiently determining to warrant the statement than in many employments a higher death-rate, results in consequence of the employment of children, *physically unfit* for factory work, at ages under sixteen.

We, however, must not concentrate our interest too exclusively upon the factory child, or upon the wage-earning children in general, who number approximately two million. Let us

for a moment inquire into the influences of school life upon the health of children, of so much greater importance when we consider that the pupils in public and private schools number some seventeen million and represent practically the whole of the next generation. A large amount of information regarding this subject will be found in Senate Document No. 65, 55th Session, 3d Session, of the public schools of the District of Columbia, and also in Public School Document No 8 of the City of Boston for the year 1894. The data presented, although mostly for foreign countries, conclusively prove that in a large number of instances, probably in more than 50 per cent., the child is more or less seriously injured in health as the result of exposure to unsatisfactory circumstances during its period of mental training. This was recognized and pointed out by Herbert Spencer, who notes that "Go where you will and before long there come under your notice cases of children or youth of either sex more or less injured by undue study." Dr. Johnston, of Washington, D. C., states that "The morbidity of school children, by which term is meant any one of a large number of mental or physical shortcomings, increases *from 28 per cent. at age seven to 64 per cent. at age twelve,* and that while there is a decrease in the percentage of morbidity at the higher ages, this is due to the fact that those who continue to graduation represent the fittest who have survived in the struggle." Dr. Johnston enumerates a very large number of cases of illness and disease and of physical and mental injury, and in particular to the effect of school life on the eyesight, the frequency of headache, and resulting sleeplessness, affecting in some instances from 36 to 48 per cent. of the children, and he instances the experience of the Cleveland Public High School, where 25 per cent. of the girls and 18 per cent of the boys had been compelled to withdraw in one year for various reasons, mostly on account of bad health. He argues that school instruction is commenced *at too early an age,* and that numerous observations show conclusively that the child enters school when the body and brain are unfit for the work, and there is a reasonable certainty that abnormal conditions will be brought about. He further argues that the beginning of school instruction should be placed at the age of eight years, and that thus the over-strain

of immature organs and the progressive increase of so-called school diseases would be prevented. He calls attention to the admission of children who are physically and mentally unfit to begin school instruction, or who cannot bear the restriction of school life, and the remedy suggested is the fixing of eight years as the proper age to commence school life, and the necessity *of a proper medical certificate* as to the fitness, mental and physical, of each child who seeks admission to the schools.

PHYSICAL BASIS FOR SCHOOL LIFE.

We have here a ready appreciation of the need of a physical basis for school life, corresponding to the recommended physical basis for factory life. For the former the data required for a minimum standard are more readily available than for the latter. For some years past extensive investigations have been made in this country as to the normal physical proportions of a child at ages six to sixteen, and we know with reasonable accuracy the average stature and average weight at different periods of youth. For the purpose of ready reference the more important data have been brought together in two tables, showing respectively the average height and weight of boys at ages $6\frac{1}{2}$ to $15\frac{1}{2}$ in six representative cities and according to color for Washington, D. C. A third table is added showing the relative proportion of weight to stature, or to the relative proportion of weight to height, at different periods of life. The last of these

COMPARATIVE TABLE OF STATURE (INCHES) FOR AMERICAN PUBLIC SCHOOL CHILDREN—BOYS.

Ages	Boston, Mass.	Worcester, Mass.	Washington, D.C. White.	Washington, D.C. Colored.	St. Louis, Mo.	Milwaukee, Wis.	Chicago Ill.
6½	43.75	44.4	44.5	44.2	42.9	44.08	44.6
7½	45.74	46.1	46.0	46.1	44.9	46.09	46.6
8½	47.76	48.2	47.8	47.7	46.9	48.05	48.6
9½	49.69	50.0	49.7	49.3	49.0	50.00	50.7
10½	51.68	52.8	51.7	51.1	50.7	51.85	52.4
11½	53.33	54.6	53.2	52.1	52.7	53.76	54.0
12½	55.10	56.3	55.1	53.9	54.4	55.00	55.9
13½	57.20	58.1	56.8	56.1	56.3	57.50	58.7
14½	59.90	60.7	59.1	58.0	58.3	59.90	60.9
15½	62.30	63.9	61.8	60.1	61.0	62.30	63.6

COMPARATIVE TABLE OF WEIGHT (POUNDS) AMERICAN PUBLIC SCHOOL CHILDREN—BOYS.

Ages.	Boston, Mass.	Worcester, Mass.	Washington, D. C. White.	Washington, D. C. Colored.	St. Louis, Mo.	Milwaukee, Wis.	Chicago, Ill.
6½.....	45.2	42.6	45.2	43.4	43.7	44.8	45.6
7½.....	49.1	46.0	47.8	50.1	47.8	49.1	49.7
8½.....	53.9	49.4	51.5	54.0	52.5	53.8	55.3
9½.....	59.2	53.6	56.2	59.0	57.5	59.5	60.8
10½.....	65.3	59.8	61.5	65.2	62.4	65.4	65.8
11½.....	70.2	66.5	66.2	69.4	68.3	70.9	71.9
12½.....	76.9	71.0	72.7	76.0	73.9	76.1	78.7
13½.....	84.8	78.8	79.4	83.5	80.7	84.9	89.3
14½.....	94.9	86.1	88.3	90.9	89.1	95.8	99.0
15½.....	107.1	98.2	100.9	99.4	101.9	109.0	112.6

POUNDS TO THE INCH AMERICAN PUBLIC SCHOOL CHILDREN—BOYS.

Ages.	Boston, Mass.	Worcester, Mass.	Washington, D. C. White.	Washington, D. C. Colored.	St. Louis, Mo.	Milwaukee, Wis.	Chicago, Ill.
6½.....	1.03	0.96	1.02	0.98	1.02	1.02	1.02
7½.....	1.07	1.00	1.04	1.09	1.06	1.07	1.07
8½.....	1.13	1.02	1.08	1.13	1.12	1.12	1.14
9½.....	1.19	1.07	1.13	1.20	1.17	1.19	1.20
10½.....	1.26	1.13	1.19	1.28	1.23	1.26	1.26
11½.....	1.32	1.22	1.24	1.33	1.30	1.32	1.33
12½.....	1.40	1.26	1.32	1.41	1.36	1.38	1.41
13½.....	1.48	1.36	1.40	1.49	1.44	1.51	1.52
14½.....	1.58	1.42	1.49	1.57	1.53	1.60	1.63
15½.....	1.72	1.54	1.63	1.65	1.67	1.75	1.77

tables will prove exceedingly useful in determining the average physical condition of a child in the absence of absolutely accurate information as to age. The relative proportions of weight to stature varies from about one pound at age ten to one and a half pounds at age sixteen, and they are practically the same for boys and girls. Just what would be a safe minimum requirement of stature and weight according to these tables remains to be determined by more extensive investigations, but if we assume the minimum requirements of at least 75 per cent. of the normal stature and 80 per cent. of the normal weight, we have a rational statistical basis to commence with. Either this method, or the one recommended by Roberts, is readily applied and without question to very considerable advantage in eliminating the

physically unfit for factory life or other wage-earning employments.

MORAL VALUE OF CHILD LABOR.

It is along these lines that the problem must be solved in simple justice to the interests of the child as well as to the parent. This country is full of remarkable individual instances of children who commenced to labor at a very early age, not only without injury, physical, mental or moral, but to very considerable advantage. "I do not remember the time" wrote William Cobett "when I did not earn my own living, and my father would boast that he had four boys, the oldest of whom was but fifteen, who could do as much work as any three men in the parish of Farnham." We have a very interesting illustration nearer home in the case of Mrs. Harriet H. Robinson, whose little volume "Loom and Spindle" is well worthy of being read by all who care for the plain truth on either side of the argument. Mrs. Robinson in her autobiography states that she went to work at ten years of age, commencing as a "doffer," often carrying a bobbin box bigger than herself. "I do not recall" she writes "any particular hardships in this life, except getting up so early in the morning, but in every other respect it was a very pleasant life, and no more work was required of us than we were able to do." This little mill-worker did not complain, did not whine and rail at her life as a curse, but cheerfully did her duty and never even thought her long tasks a burden. She did not grow up in ignorance, for, as she remarks "The education of a child is an all-around process, and he or she owes only a part to the school or college." She attended evening school and read extensively, but the most valuable part came to her through "the discipline our work brought us"—"we were taught daily habits of regularity and industry—in fact, it was a sort of manual training school." As to the physical aspects of factory life at this period, she remarks "The health of the girls was good. The regularity and simplicity of their lives and the plain and substantial food provided for them kept them free from illness. From their Puritan ancestors they had inherited sound bodies and a fair share of endurance."

The experience of Mrs. Robinson is one of the instances where early training in industry has proven of material and life-long benefit. In an innumerable number of cases this story, of course, remains untold and unrecorded in the lives of the plain people, who do not become authors or contributors to current literature. It is so very easy to misconceive the reality and purpose of life in the guise of apparent sordidness and bitter hardships. "In the mill," reasons the Evening Post, "there are conditions which stupefy the child, stunt its growth and make it a mere creature of routine, without habits, opinions, or ideas. In many mills the morals of the child, as well as its physical being, are endangered, and all this for wages of fifteen cents a day, or night, or not much more than that." But in answer, quoting from a truly admirable book entitled "The Strength of the People" by Mrs. Helen Bosanquet, whose power of insight into the life of the people anyone familiar with her work will grant, "There is risk of assuming too hastily that routine is fatal to intellectual activity." For" she continues, "routine may be only a frame work within which the greatest mental activity is set." The main question from her point of view is that the mind shall be capable of being interested in the work, and even the most monotonous work, in her opinion, does not preclude rational interest, "certainly" she argues, "not during intervals, and probably not, to some extent, during its continuance." The mechanical occupation of the body is frequently more of an aid than a hindrance to mental activity. There is no greater need for social reformers than to realize that "certain ills belong to the hardships of human life—that they are part of the struggle with Nature for existence." "It should be noted" writes Mrs. Bosanquet, that "those who cry out against the monotony of any particular kind of work are most often those who are not themselves engaged in it." "For" she continues, "it is from the outside that routine has its most terrifying effect, because we have not the imagination to picture the inner life of those who are engaged in it."

THE NEED OF JUSTICE TO THE CHILD.

It is so easy to deceive ourselves in these matters and to let our sympathies guide the movement for social reconstruction, instead of a well-defined policy of justice and real humanity. It is neither rational nor humane to educate the child in such a manner that when it finds itself confronting the world, it does not possess the elements for battling with the world. While very far, let us hope, from the miserable and unworthy conditions prevailing in England during the early thirties, and which led to the reforms by which "a nation on the way to decay was checked in its downward course and recovered," still the lesson of England's experience in pauperism, of a whole nation on the verge of decay, in consequence of a fatuous policy of perverted humanitarianism, may guide us and teach that if here, as there, "a few determined men will devote their whole energies to the understanding of the position and frame a policy of reform, to be carried through persistently in the face of popular prejudice and misunderstanding" much good may be accomplished. Such was the work of the Poor Law Commissioners of 1832, and such was the effect of the Poor Law Report of 1834, a report in the words of Mrs. Bosanquet, "classic not only for its masterly handling of a mass of evidence, but as being a truly scientific basis for the greatest social experiment ever tried." That experiment was a great success and would have been still greater if the recommendations of the Commission for radical and fundamental reforms had been carried out in all their severity and had not been interfered with by a latter-day mistaken philanthropy. The desire to be generous or benevolent is ever threatening to make us forget that such generosity may really be at the expense, and to the lasting injury, of the very people we wish to assist.

THE NEED OF A COMPREHENSIVE INVESTIGATION.

Summarizing the results of my own investigations into the social and medical aspects of child labor, I find myself confronted by the absence of definite data and authentic facts necessary for the framing of definite recommendations or suggestions.

It seems to me, after reading much of what has been written, mostly from one side of the case, that there is the greatest possible need for a comprehensive investigation, which should take into account most of all the physical status of the children employed in different industries and at different years of life. The laws of growth and the relation of health to growth are now so well understood that it would not be at all difficult to ascertain whether children employed at different trades are really physically injured, or stunted in their growth, or hindered in their development, physically as well as mentally, by such employment. It certainly would appear to me a paramount duty not to legislate along radical lines unless the necessity for such legislation is all-convincing and established beyond the question of a possible doubt. I trust that the suggestion for an extensive investigation under private or government authority will be approved of and that before far-reaching legislation is enacted, the real facts of the case will be secured.

THE SOCIOLOGICAL WORK OF THE COTTON MILL OWNERS.

BY D. A. TOMPKINS, CHARLOTTE, N. C.

A little history of the city of Lowell, Mass., was written in 1845 by Rev. Henry A. Miles. I quote from the preface as follows:

"The unexampled growth of the city of Lowell gives interest to some notice of the successive steps by which it has attained to its present importance, of the extent of its manufacturing operations, and of the actual condition of its industrious population. An unsettled territory of pasture and meadow has, within the memory of the middle aged, been covered with substantial edifices, mills, stores, churches, blocks of houses, the prosperous homes of nearly thirty thousand people; thus almost realizing the creations of some oriental fable, at least emulation in a few years of what, in other places, has been the slow growth of centuries."

All of what is here said about the growth of Lowell in a period of fifteen to twenty years might be used now word for word about the industrial or manufacturing growth of Gastonia in North Carolina, Pelzer in South Carolina, or Tryon in Georgia. This comparison is drawn to show that the present industrial development of the south is moving along identically the same lines as those upon which the manufacturing interests of New England and other northern localities was developed to the present magnitude in similar surrounding conditions. The manufacturing development of New England was on lines practically with those upon which a preceding development in England has been made. The growth in England was step by step and over a long time. The growth in New England, though having the experience of England as a guide, required practically the same time and progress step by step as had been in England.

The industrial development of the northwest was made in the same way and required time. The experiences of England and the northwest could not be utilized in any way that would eliminate time and bring a result at once.

In the new industrial development of the south, it is being found that each step must be made in its regular order, and that each phase of the development requires time as has been the case in other sections of this country and in other countries.

In the little history of Lowell referred to, I find that sociological conditions and problems were met and dealt with that are being met and dealt with now in the south.

I speak of the "new" industrial development of the south advisedly. In the time in which Lowell made such astonishing progress, viz.: from 1825 to 1845, an industrial system which had existed in the south was decaying and drying up.

The fact that the southern states surpassed any other part of the United States in manufactures in the latter part of the 18th and in the early part of the 19th century seems to have been almost lost sight of. I have often before pointed out that as late as 1810 the manufactured products of Virginia, the Carolinas and Georgia exceeded in value and variety, those of all the New England States and New York taken together.

This was before the time that the institution of slavery, coupled with the production of cotton, had any such controlling influence as it subsequently acquired.

The southern states were settled by English ,Scotch, Irish, Germans — people who were of the same blood and the same kind as those who in the main settled Pennsylvania. The industrial development of the south at that time, and especially in the Piedmont region of Virginia, the Carolinas and Georgia, was practically parallel and in all respects similar to that made by the same people in Pennsylvania. On the water powers of the Piedmont region were many blast furnaces and rolling mills. Much of the iron made in this region was hauled in wagons to Fayetteville, Camden and other river points, whence it went by boats to ocean ports and by vessel to Boston, where it found a market. There were machine shops, hat factories, woolen mills, cotton mills and a great variety of other well-developed manufacturing interests. A machine shop near Lincolnton, N. C., built cotton mill machinery, and some samples of the spindles and rollers made in this shop and which have been preserved show excellent design and workmanship. The conditions which I have described naturally involved the presence of a well developed system of skilled white labor.

The narrative may seem irrelevant, but it is necessary in order that I may even attempt to show the past and present sociological conditions and speculate upon the course in future.

In 1794 the cotton gin was invented by Whitney, practically as a laboratory experiment, and a patent was given by George Washington to Eli Whitney for his great invention. In 1796 Hodgen Holmes built the first saw gin, based upon the principles of Whitney's invention and made the invention of practical value. Washington also issued a patent to Holmes for his improvement.

Between 1790 and 1800 agriculture in the south was in a depressed condition. Throughout the United States all business was very much depressed for a time after the Revolutionary War. Cotton had been raised in the south in small quantities and chiefly for home use. The cost of separating the lint from the seed made its production as a staple crop unprofitable. The cotton gin changed this situation. Everybody who bought or

built one of the new machines found the production of cotton for export very profitable. The production of cotton also furnished suitable and profitable occupation for Negro slaves. In this situation agriculture with slave labor became very attractive. As this new system grew the Negro slave became more and more important, and the free white mechanic less and less important.

About 1810 the manufacturing interest of the south reached its maximum. From that time forward the production of cotton with slave labor became of importance more and more in excess of the importance of the manufacturing interests. The Negro increased in value. The white mechanic in the iron works, in the wagon works, in the cotton mill, in the machine shops and other similar trades found his value depreciated. There was a great emigration of these through Tennessee and Kentucky to the free northwest. Abraham Lincoln when a baby was in this movement. Great numbers of the best yeomen class of the southeast went to the northwest and have borne well their part in building of that section, as the names of Lincoln, Harrison, Thurman and others will attest. Those who were left behind left their manufacturing occupations and went on to farms. They were mechanics and not farmers. Besides this handicap they had to compete with slave labor and the laws gradually came to favor slave labor more and more and free labor less. Under these adverse conditions half the former skilled white labor went to the northwest, being driven out for want of occupation. The other half was first driven to farming and then by the competition of slave labor to poverty. These became the poor whites of the south. The southern farmer who did his own work before the Civil War lived a hard life. He made the best possible soldier in the Civil War in a conflict in which he had no interest or rather in which his interest was best served by the abolition of slavery — losing his own fights. After the Civil War these descendants of the mechanics of the anti-slavery period bore their full share of the burdens of the period of so-called reconstruction. They had lived hard before the Civil War, fought hard through the war and again entered upon a hard life of farming after the war, but never did they falter in standing for the preservation of the purity

of the Anglo-Saxon race or the preservation of Anglo-Saxon civilization.

One word here further about these people and who they are: They came to this country with the same people who settled New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Maryland and West Virginia. They were of the same people, viz.: Scotch, Irish, German and some English. Some landed at Charleston and here also landed a Huguenot element. They are of the same race of people as the Carnegies, Fritz and the other Scotch, Scotch Irish, German and English people who settled in Pennsylvania and in the same environment would have achieved the same sort of success.

It was the inherent strength of the character of these people which brought them through the period of slavery, through the Civil War and through the period of reconstruction.

Slavery fell. In time the scheme of reconstruction sunk by its own weight. The adverse conditions, first slavery; second, a semi-anarchy are now gone. The environment becomes again the same as that in Pennsylvania. What is the result? Factories spring up as if by magic. The descendant of the former mechanic returns to the calling of his fathers or grandfathers as naturally as the duck, newly hatched under a hen, goes to the water. In a time that is inconceivably short one of the regions of the iron trade is again in the south, around Birmingham and Chattanooga and the intervening territory. Factories for spinning and weaving are again established and the growth of these arts is with amazing rapidity. In the manufacture of lumber, furniture, vehicles and many more lines, the story of magic growth is the same. It transpired that many of these people who had been total failures on farms had more than ordinary taste for manufacturing, and some of them swept their way to success with a quickness that made the former slaveholder catch his breath in astonishment. Many of these people went at once into the more skilled and higher trades and became carpenters, machinists, bricklayers and skilled workmen in other lines. The cotton mills made openings for all those who had no opportunity to learn these higher paid trades and those whose natural endowments and opportunities made it difficult or impossible to do so.

The cotton mill is the wide open door through which any family — even those of the most ordinary natural endowments, may find a way from the farm to manufacturing pursuits or other fields of skilled labor. Without the cotton factory the transition would be in many cases difficult. The cotton factory naturally retains many of those of least natural endowments, but it also retains many who are of the highest natural endowments. The cotton mill offers unlimited opportunity and the opportunity offered is daily being availed of by those who are capable of utilizing them. I know men who inside of a decade, have utilized these opportunities to change their condition from one of pinching poverty to one of independence and affluence.

If ever this class of people needed special help it is now. Their lives were led in hard lines when the institution of slavery was the controlling influence in the south, and also in the period of reconstruction that followed the civil war, when all the white people of the south were lined in solid and serried ranks in an army committed to the defence of and preservation of Anglo-Saxon civilization. But it is a people who probably would have refused personal help or any sumptuary patronage, even under those circumstances. Opportunity, good will and favorable environments are all they ever wanted and all that could ever have been of any avail to them. Opportunity and favorable environment they now have. The preservation of these is now the one thing of importance. With opportunity for regular work and with regular wages in cash, these people will do more for their own advancement than could ever be done by others for them.

The present environment is unusually favorable. The managements of southern mills, almost without exception, feels as much charged with the moral and intellectual development of its people as it is with the financial and physical management of the mill. Schools. churches, lyceums, libraries, have become a common part of the organization of a mill village.

Most of cotton mill operatives live in houses belonging to the corporations. Most other skilled workers in the south live in rented houses or in homes which they have purchased and paid for. This difference is simply a phase of the new industrial development in the south and it corresponds exactly with a simi-

lar phase of the industrial development of New England in a period reaching from about 1840 to 1860. The company which builds a big new factory must of necessity build houses for its operatives because there are no other houses available. This is made more necessary because the family moving from the farm does not become at once settled. After the escape from the narrow sphere and pinching poverty in which most of them have lived on the farm, the first impulse is to gratify the desire to go about a little and see something of the world beyond what would have been possible in farming. This spirit manifests itself in the frequent moves that many families make from one mill to another. The first improvement in a family comes when this spirit of restlessness has spent itself. The next movement forward comes with a desire to settle down and buy a home. The cotton mill development has not yet reached a condition to make the best opportunity for this, but it will in due time certainly reach that condition. Yet the movement has already begun and in the city in which I live there are more than a few cotton mill operatives who own their homes and still more families who have been cotton mill operatives, some of whose numbers are now in other trades, and who own their homes and whose opportunity to get an entrance into industrial life was furnished by the cotton factory.

In the time of slavery the white working people of the south lost the opportunity of education and industrial training. A long siege of poverty and much hardship, political and otherwise, ground discouragement deep into their bones. The regeneration in the modern southern working man of the sterling qualities of his ancestors which are in his bones by inheritance, cannot be accomplished in an hour or in a year. Education requires time. The building up of an educational system requires time. It requires time to rebuild the fallen fortunes of the south so that it may bear the cost of improved education and environment.

Even environment cannot be perfected quickly. It must be made to suit the phase of human development to which a people have attained. At Bethlehem in Pennsylvania, where I worked for a long time for the Bethlehem Iron Works Company and had more or less contact with the development of that style or work-

ing man's house which is so much built in the Lehigh Valley, Philadelphia and other parts of Eastern Pennsylvania and in Maryland, this experience has been of scant value to me in constructing houses for cotton mill operatives of the south to live in. There are different human conditions and also different material conditions that command attention. I have seen the Pennsylvania German become Americanized. The German of the Piedmont region has long been Americanized. The German of North Hampton County, Pa., and the German of Lincoln County, N. C., are the same people. The Scotch-Irish of Pittsburgh, Pa., and of Charlotte, N. C., are the same people. The English of the north and the south are the same people. Behind all these are twenty centuries of common training, moral, intellectual and physical. The fifty years in which those of these people at the north have been on one side of one question, while those of the south have been on the other cannot have made even a temporary impression on those more permanent qualities of twenty centuries development.

What one of these sets of people need at the hands of the philanthropist the other needs. Any work of the philanthropist that is an interference to the progress of one of these would likewise be an interference to the other.

The best possible philanthropist for the cotton mill employee is his employer. The best philanthropic work that is being done or that can be done in the interest of the southern cotton mill operative, is now being done by the employer. The southern operative needs far less philanthropy than some are disposed to bestow upon him. Opportunity and his own inclination are taking care of him now and these will bring him through all right.

I will summarize what I have intended to say as follows:

(1) The white population of the south west and the middle states is made up of the same people.

(2) In the latter part of the 18th century and in the early part of the 19th century the progress of these people in agriculture and manufacture in America was along the same lines and was parallel. If there was any inequality the southeast had the advantage.

(3) In the southeast the invention of the cotton gin by Whitney and Holmes turned the southeastern section from manufactures to agriculture with slave labor. This course of events forced the emigration of half the skilled white mechanics to the then northwest, — Ohio, Indiana and Illinois, and reduced the other half to poor farmers.

(4) Slavery being abolished and the subsequent reconstruction anarchy having been swept away by its own iniquity, the influences adverse to manufactures on the south are gone. The descendant of the former mechanic returns to the factory and his interest becomes again common with those of his middle states relatives. The common training of twenty centuries is still in his bones and the Scotch-Irishman of Pittsburgh and Charlotte are again in the same household as are the Germans of Northampton Co., Pa., again in the same household with the Germans of Lincoln Co., N. C.

(5) In this new situation philanthropic work that applies to these people in Pennsylvania will apply also in North Carolina. What is considered an interference in Pennsylvania, will with absolute certainty, be considered an interference in North Carolina.

(6) The cotton mill operatives in the south are making about as rapid advance as any people in their present state of education and training are capable of making. The employing manufacturers and the home people co-operating with the new conditions are furnishing to them about all the intellectual and moral training they are capable of assimilating.

The employer and employee are in the main of the same blood, in many instances are of kin; each generally enjoys the confidence of the other, and each has full faith in the other. By the confidence and co-operation the best progress is made. Progress is being made step by step and no step forward is generally undertaken until the people are prepared for it.

(7) Kindly and friendly interest is welcomed by employer and employee alike, but both are exceedingly averse to emotional philanthropy and both resent being made the subject of agitators and notoriety seekers in the name of philanthropy.

(8) The new conditions and the new environment are doing more than all human effort could do. The opportunity to help themselves is what has been lacking in the past. The opportunity being fully at hand it may safely be left for the natural initiative, energy and ambition of the people to work out their own best success. In doing this the personal friendship and simple friendly interest of those who have had better advantages will be valuable and will be highly appreciated.

HUMANITY AND ECONOMICS, WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO CHILD LABOR.

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I am using the word "economics" as the modern equivalent of political economy: the science which treats of the production, distribution and consumption of wealth. By humanity, I mean the science of human development. I shall employ the word humanitarian in a sociological rather than in a theological sense: that is, as describing one who looks at things from the point of view of their bearing on human development. I wish to indicate as well as I may within necessary limits, something of the mutual relations of humanity and economics, and then to apply these general considerations to the question of the enforced labor of young children in manufactories, mines, etc.

It is obvious that the points of view of these two economics and humanity are not the same. Their spirit and method are diverse. Economics has but one aim, and one standard of value: its aim is profit, and its measuring rod is the dollar. "Political Economy," said John Stuart Mill, "considers mankind as occupied solely in acquiring and consuming wealth." Humanity, on the other hand, looks primarily to the whole good, the physical, mental and spiritual welfare of human society as a whole and of every individual member of society. Its watchword is

not profit, but humanhood: manhood and womanhood. Justice and fraternity are its invisible but substantial and eternal verities.

And since the ends and aims and methods of the two are different, it is inevitable that there should occur clashes between the humanitarian and the economic camps. It may be the two sciences themselves are harmonious, or at least reconcilable, and that their respective followers are illogically quarreling; as Abraham and Lot were good friends while the retainers of each fell out anent the subject of cattle. But, however that may be, humanitarians and economists (or the practical representatives of the latter, — business men, manufacturers, and laborers too) collide with one another. And they express their opinions of each other in a manner that does not want clearness or force. The humanitarian sometimes denounces the employer of labor, for example, as materialistic, a worshiper of Mammon, a fattener on the blood of human beings, etc., etc., while the employer gives the retort courteous in such phrases as visionaries, unpractical sentimentalists, interferers with things they know nothing about, and have no business to meddle with; while if to other accusations there can be added the fact that the sentimentalists are also women or preachers, the *coup de grace* is supposed to have been effectually administered.

In trying to get at the relations which these two, humanity and economics, should sustain toward each other, I begin by the statement that the economist, or the practical business man, has much of undeniable truth on his side. Material things in life can not be ignored, any more than within the limits of a single personality, the body can be altogether ignored. The pursuit of wealth, by some members of the body politic, not by all, would seem to be an essential factor in the development and progress of a people. While wealth need never be sought as an end in itself, yet the putting forth of those activities which result in wealth, would seem to be a necessary function for at least some part of the social organism. And it is certain that business can not be permanently carried on without a profit.

The present writer is prepared to go still further and to assert that no business man or manufacturer can be, as such, so profoundly convinced of the importance of the development of the

resources of a country, as is the catholic-minded religious man. The subduing of the earth, the mastery of the forces of nature, he recognizes as a Divine command; part of the great charter with which human development began on the earth. He is in intelligent sympathy with the course of material development in nature and human history, because he finds in that development some, at least, of the rounds in the ladder which joins heaven and earth, mounting from that which is natural to that which is spiritual. Material things furnish much of the matter if they do not determine the spirit for human growth.

Once more, the humanitarian who has opened his mind to the twofold revelation of God, one called science and made through the laws of nature, and one called religion, made through humanity everywhere, especially through a perfect humanity, is coming to realize that we need, for human development, a synthesis of all knowledge. In particular, the humanitarian needs the discipline to be derived from logic both deductive and inductive; from the laws of human thinking as revealed in the constitution of the human mind, and in the processes of nature, both physical and human. The theorist must remain a mischief-maker so long as he refuses to acknowledge and make a place for any fact to which the "practical" man may call his attention. The humanitarian, for example, sometimes tells us that love will settle all disputes between man and man. Now, however much of truth there may be in that statement, it is overlooked that love between man and man must assume, in human society, an economic form. Righteousness and love must be infused into the soul of human society, but society must have a body as well as a soul. To be yet more definite, those of us who are laboring to have laws passed for the protection of young children against too hard or unduly prolonged labor, are bound to consider the economic laws of production, and, whatever circumstances here in the south, may differentiate the situation and make it peculiar.

But having made this concession to the "practical man" as he loves to call himself, I proceed to insist that the whole science of economics, and the whole question of profit in a material sense, must take a subordinate place. The humanitarian's position is, to render unto economics that which properly comes within its do-

main, and to man that which is man's. If dollars and men are in conflict, it is the dollar and not the man that must yield, just as the wise president of a college, while favoring athletic development among the students, that they may have sound minds in sound bodies, yet requires the athletic to be subordinated to the intellectual development, and if, on any occasion, the two should come into collision, he would demand that muscle be sacrificed to mind, and not mind to muscle.

If it be true — I am putting the case as a supposition — if it be true that we can not manufacure cotton at a profit without injustice and physical injury to children, I see no reason why we should not go without cotton or pay more for it rather than purchase it at such a price.

We believe, if I may speak for those I am calling humanitarians, that as physical health is important, and the body is a valuable servant, but must be servant and not master, so profit should be made to serve man, and not the contrary.

Before a person can intelligently say that one thing is of more value than another, he must have a standard to judge by. There was one who asked, on a certain occasion, "How much is a man better than a sheep?" *How much* a man is better than a sheep, we may not say, but we take our stand on this, that a man is better than a sheep and of more value than machinery or money, — so much more that the two are incommensurable. I am of the opinion that this ought to be universally accepted without argument, but it may be as well to adduce a few considerations in support of the thesis.

The question being man for wealth or wealth for man, suppose all wealth were destroyed and man left, or, on the other hand, suppose all men destroyed, and wealth left. What would wealth be without man to use it? Only what sound waves would be with no listening ear. Wealth is wealth only by virtue of human desires and needs; and while men may produce wealth, wealth is powerless to make men; it has even been known to unmake them.

Again, we claim nature, when rightly interpreted, as on our side. The great discoveries in physical science that marked the century just closed had the effect, for a while, of withdrawing

the attention of a class of thinkers from human nature and its needs. It is remarkable and significant that one representative thinker of that period, the late Mr. George John Romanes, who first abandoned and then regained his hold on some of the fundamental convictions of his earlier years, tells us that his error lay, partly, in his neglect of *human* nature, for the purely physical — as if force and protozoa were of more consequence than the human mind and the human soul, or were of any significance whatever, except in relation to the perfected man towards whom, all along the line, they point!

Prof. John Fiske, perhaps the most spiritual interpreter of the facts of physical science of our time, said, in substance, that it came to him with the force of a revelation, that while science has upset the earlier chapters of Genesis as literally interpreted, and so far as geology and astronomy go, yet the real point of the author in regard to man and nature, viz., that nature looks up to and serves man, is really also the teaching of science, since the climax of the indefinitely long evolutionary process is the production of man, and he told us, further, that there nowhere appeared any evidence of intention on the part of nature to produce any being on this earth higher than man, but that evolution, in future, aims at perfecting man, getting rid of the ape and the tiger, and developing the truly human.

And as we claim nature, so do we claim history, actual experience, on our side. We are willing and anxious that theories should be tested by results: we take up the gage of battle thrown down by the so-called practical man. We join issue on the practicability of being humane and doing right.

A paper much longer than this, nay, a volume; nay, a library, would be required to show how all human history preaches the lesson of righteousness and humanity. All down the pathway of human history, the mammoth ruins of great nations lie that have sinned against the law of humanity and right, and exalted wealth and luxury above man. The truth is that in decrying what they are pleased to stigmatize as sentiment, the so-called practical men are the most unpractical and visionary of mortals. Sentiment as distinguished from sentimentality, is one of the most powerful factors in life, if it be not the very motive

power of life itself, even for the so-called practical man. It is feeling that moves men. Objects appeal to us only in so far as feeling is aroused. And feeling is but another name for sentiment. Even ideas are powerless until feeling is enlisted in their behalf. Ideas may lay the track, but it is steam that drives the engine. The real issue is not between people of sentiment and practical people, it is between people of one kind of sentiment and another. I have seen some forty or fifty mill owners in a committee room of the Georgia legislature show a good deal of sentiment, that is feeling, on behalf of the let-alone policy in regard to the question of child labor. Do the opponents of sentiment mean to ignore or defy the sentiments of justice, of humanity, of liberty, as practical and necessary forces in life? Do they really mean to say that the sentiment, for example, of love of home and country and kindred and kind, is, as it were, mere gilding on the machinery of human existence and not its essential driving power? Even sentimentality can not be decried as a force, however much it may be condemned as undirected force. You may not approve of the direction in which a cannon ball is moving, but if you see one coming towards you you will get out of the way, or not needlessly come into contact with it. Sentimentality, let us say once for all, as distinguished from sentiment, is feeling divorced from vital connection with truth and fact; like a locomotive on the wrong track, or no track; like flowers that are merely fragrant and not the prophecies of fruit. To demand higher wages for employees than the business will stand may be sentimentality, but to ask that *exorbitant* profits be reduced in the interest of humanity, or that additional profits be sought by ingenuity applied in some other quarter than wrecking the health of operatives is, I beg to submit, right sentiment. And history, I am saying, is on the side of the men of sentiment, as opposed to those who call themselves practical men and who stigmatize idealists as visionary and sentimentalists. The very philantropy of mill owners of which we have heard so much, is a result in modern industrial life of the power of sentiment evoked by poets and philanthropists, even by women and preachers, re-enforced by the restraining and educational power of legislation.

Napoleon Bonaparte was wont to say that Providence was always on the side of the heaviest battalions, but he failed to recognize that a clash of arms is really a clash of ideas, and that who commands the heaviest battalions is in the long run a moral question. The mighty author of this false sentiment gave to the world at Waterloo a synonym for defeat, having gone down before that people whose moral vigor has caused them far to outstrip the French in the race of life. If at Santiago the American soldier was full of zeal, courage and initiative, while the Spaniard knelt in a trench, at one end of which stood an officer ready to inflict death on the coward ready to escape, the difference was at bottom a difference of sentiment between the Spanish and the American people. If the man behind the gun on board the American man-of-war shot straighter and hit harder than his foe, it was in part because the money voted for practice was honestly used. The difference between honest and dishonest people may be called a difference of sentiment. The general superiority of the American as laborer, as soldier, and as citizen, so far as we may justly claim superiority, is a result of atmosphere, of those subtle influences of liberty, of humanity, and the like, which are the very forces the "practical" man despises.

I can imagine how far off and unreal this must sound to the man immersed day after day in markets and manufactures, and yet one may as well ignore the law of gravitation as go counter to the infinite and eternal energy everywhere present, and from which all things have proceeded and do proceed. There is a power increasingly manifest in nature and in history which is itself unseen but which we may not ignore. It is viewless as the air and silent as gravitation, but irresistible as death—it is the Power that makes for righteousness and humanity.

But, once more, we claim also the science of Political Economy itself as at last on the side of humanity. The "dismal science" has become infused with something of the warmth and light of humanity. Adam Smith, who, while he can hardly be called the father of the science, yet caused it to take a decided step forward, joined together what he called "those political regulations which are founded upon expediency and which

are calculated to increase the riches, the power and the prosperity of a state," with natural theology, ethics, and jurisprudence. His immediate successors, however, seem to have undertaken to make of economics a complete science by itself with the result that it became indeed the "dismal science," but of late we have returned to something of Smith's position. We have gone forward partly by going backward, like the motion of the lower half of a wagon wheel, and to-day political economy is recognized as but a branch of the larger science, sociology, the science of individual and collective well-being. The change that has come about is due to the recognition of persons rather than things as controlling factors in the equation of human life; from labor as a commodity to the laborer as a man, and, in a less degree, perhaps, from capital to the capitalist, just as in penology the emphasis is changed from the crime to the criminal.

This change in thought parallels a corresponding change in actual experience. Faith led the way and has produced results which can be no longer ignored by any except the wilfully blind, but must serve as guides for the future. For example, under the blighting influence of the Manchester school of political economy, which saw in man only a wealth-producing and wealth-consuming creature, and regarded extreme individualism as the ideal social virtue, even such a lover of his fellow-men — the fact is most instructive — as John Bright was led to oppose the Ten Hours' Bill on the ground that it was advocated by those who had no knowledge of the economy of manufactures, and would be injurious to the best interests of the country, while the manufacturers themselves contended that their profit was all made in the last hour and without that they could not compete with foreign rivals. But practical experience showed that both the manufacturers and the economists were absolutely wrong; and thus was wisdom once again justified of her children.

And I beg you to notice why they were wrong. It was because they one and all forgot that a laborer is a human being; that he can stand so much and no more; and, above

all, that whatever touches his heart and stimulates his mind, increases, up to a certain point, his productive value. Dr. Henry van Dyke tells a story of a Scotch regiment whose musicians thought they could better serve their beloved commander by renouncing the bagpipe in favor of the claymore, with the result that when the shock of battle came the soldiers, brave though they were, listened for the accustomed inspiring strains, and failing to hear them, fell back. Look at the happy Negro singing at his work. One can imagine the practical man arguing most mathematically and scientifically that the Negro has just so much breath to translate into energy, and that if he wastes a part of it in singing he has just that much left for shovelling dirt!

Last Christmas an advertisement appeared in the New York papers to the effect that certain large department stores would during the holidays close at eight instead of keeping open, as theretofore, until eleven at night. They were careful to state that the impelling reason was they lost more than they gained by overworking their employees. Again, it has been proved over and over again that "the countries where hours are the shortest, and wages the highest, the labor is cheapest."

Our conclusion is that in the long run, humanity and economics, right and prosperity, are one.

Why, then, it may well be asked, if this be so plain in both theory and experience, does anybody deny it? The answer lies in that qualifying phrase, *"in the long run."* Greed and inhumanity, within certain limits, often pay in a material sense. "After me the deluge," said the king of France. The individual man may say, "This will last my time and pay me dividends; after me the deluge, but that will not trouble me;" but the state must say, even from a purely selfish standpoint, the instinct of self-preservation: "I will not have any deluge at all, if it can be prevented." And whatever differences of opinion may exist as to the proper limitations of governmental control of individuals, this I hold to be self-evident: government may and must do whatever moral suasion cannot be relied on to accomplish, and which, at the same time, is necessary for the

protection of society, both as it exists in space and as it is projected forward in time.

I have used most of my time in elucidating these general principles because the advocates of unrestricted child labor, or restricted only by the sweet will of individuals and corporations, hardly seem to be aware how sweeping and destructive of society are their principles.

Lest our southern cotton mill men consider themselves put in an unjust position, let me say this question is national and not sectional. Mr. William S. Waudby, Special Agent U. S. Department of Labor, says: "Much has been written of the factories in the southern states, but authentic statistics of the government show that the state of Pennsylvania alone has many more of these little workers employed than have the combined southern states." But I confess I have never seen reason to believe that for the pot to call the kettle black was to make either one of them white. If I speak mainly of the question, then, as existing here, it is not as making of our fellow-citizens in the south sinners above all them that dwell in Jerusalem, but because the south is that part of the country in which I live and work. And on this question, I affirm, that all of the general considerations about humanity and economics apply with tenfold force to the case of little children. Children are at once the only hope of the future, and the surest guarantees of coming harm to society if maltreated. They are the seed corn for all future crops, and especially must this be true of the future mothers of this race. Now, it may be — I do not affirm that it is — but it may be that cotton mills will make profits for their owners, and that the cotton industry will remain prosperous *for a time,* while little children are deprived of education and toil out their lives beside nerve-racking machines, but how about the long run?

Let us have no false sentiment about this business. There is no real reason why children should not do some work. Let the science of physical well-being ascertain the facts and render a verdict formed in the dry light of reason, on the effect of child labor in mines, manufactures, and anywhere else, upon the health of body and mind of the children. Let whatever other

inquiries be instituted that may be required by other departments of the child's well being. In particular, let the scientific humanitarian, the sociologist, give us his verdict as to the effect on coming generations of any particular policy; let the manufacturer be heard from, too; but when the facts are all in, let not the manufacturer answer that he must have his dividends, no matter what becomes of the children, or of human society at large. That is sentiment, and very vile sentiment at that. We ask on behalf of the child and on behalf of society that a limitation be put upon age and upon hours of labor. We ask time for some education, and even for play. We ask that conditions of labor shall be those of good health, physical and moral.

I have stated this demand in general terms, because I am not, personally prepared to say what would be an ideal bill to pass on this subject. I am disposed to be conservative, if I can see progress making. I am disposed to concede something to actual conditions. But I feel no hesitation in saying that a bill which excludes children from factories and mines altogether below the age of ten, and from night work below the age of, say, sixteen, and which requires some education for those thus employed between the ages of ten and twelve, is *below* rather than above what we ought to give the children, and is open to no economic objection, in the long run or short run; and, further, that this protection should be afforded by the state, and not left to individual liberty, the philanthropic mill owners to the contrary notwithstanding.

The verdict of economics, as rendered by competent mill men themselves, is, that the employment of such young children is not only inhuman, but unprofitable. The verdict of economic science for the long run is, that not only is such labor injurious to coming generations, but that the cotton industry of the south demands such protection and such education of her children that cotton goods of a higher grade may be produced here in the near future. There is one other economic consideration to which I beg to call your attention, and which the state, as the guardian of the welfare of all, must bear in mind, viz., the effect on wages, and, in consequence, on the condition of the laboring classes, of child labor. It has been demonstrated

that the effect of putting a whole family to work, women and children besides the man, is ultimately to drag down the combined family compensation to the level of what the father alone formerly received; with the added results, that the whole tone of family life is sensibly lowered and society correspondingly robbed. Still another economic consideration, that the effect of child labor is, in a considerable degree, to throw adults out of employment; and society becomes menaced by idle men and women, especially men. It has been abundantly demonstrated that one of the evils of our social system is the large number of the unemployed, seemingly connected with the fact, that proportionately a smaller number of laborers can do the work called for by society. Child labor is a direct aggravation of this great evil.

Now what can be said against this presentation of the case? We are told that such legislation as is asked for is unnecessary, because provided for by voluntary agreement. But manufacturers would seem to forget that by the same token *all* restraining laws might be left off the statute books because there are some good people in the world, who will not rob or murder anyhow. Law is for the lawless.

The necessity for legislation lies here. It happens over and over again, as has already been pointed out, both for society and the individual, that honesty is not the best policy, if we measure results by a material standard of value, and for a limited period of time. There will probably always exist temptation to men of certain sort to pursue a course which will pay them while they live, measuring pay in dollars, but will not pay society, in the long run, measuring pay by dollars or any other standard. Progress for humanity at large, from one generation to another, thus demands that the long view be taken in estimating results, and so far as I can see, there are two necessary forces that must be employed to remove this obstacle: the one may be called moral suasion, in all its forms, as represented by the power of right ideas and right feelings; the influence exerted, for example, by this conference. The other power, is the compelling power of the state. The truth for those who will respond to it, and the policeman for those who will not, are the twin guardians of peace

and progress. The state must be the arbiter, not only between man and man, or class and class, as they co-exist in one generation; but it must also be the arbiter between this and succeeding generations, the guardian of children yet unborn. And as to the philanthropy of which we have had such interesting accounts, that affords no valid reason why other children, who have not such benevolent employers, should not be protected; rather the contrary. "Let not your good be evil spoken of," wrote the Apostle Paul; but to let one's good be so used as indirectly to oppress others, is worse. And, without at all impugning the motives of benevolent manufacturers, I must observe that it is sometimes easier to be generous than just, and that much of this philanthropy seems to me to be open to the objection stated by Mr. D. A. Tompkins, viz., that it is patronizing. How about an opportunity for working men to own their home?

Nor can it be successfully contended that the *laissez faire*, or let alone policy should be pursued in this instance. We have been compelled greatly to widen the scope of government anyway, in these days; but even on the old theory of the least government the better, it is admitted by John Stuart Mill that children must be protected by the state not only against their employers but aginst their parents.

And what shall we say to the objection to legislation that it is asked for by the laboring man, and, on that account, solely, whether right or wrong, must be resisted unto death? Are people who openly and in explicit terms set justice aside the people to be trusted to behave without the restraining and guiding hand of the law? It is the entering wedge, we are assured. But it is right or wrong, wise or unwise in itself. Are there no capitalists with eyes open to see that this challenge to the working man is bound to work evil and evil only; bound to increase and not diminish the friction between employers and employees in the coming years of Southern industrial development? Where is the capitalist to rise and say: "I believe in making money, but I believe in humanity and justice." I believe in giving the children of the poor a chance. We seem to be on the threshold of a conflict more or less prolonged and severe between the respective camps of laborers and capitalists; no doubt many demands of

working men we may have to resist before the legislature, but this measure is so palpably just that we stultify ourselves and lay up trouble for ourselves and our children by resisting it."

Would not such an attitude on the part of capitalists infuse something of the spirit of moderation and conciliation into the laboring camp, instead of stirring up revenge? Let that man arise and his memory will be kept green in days to come, whatever persecutions he may be subjected to now. How long will it take us to learn that evil can not be overcome by evil, but only by good?

This demand for protection of young children is, every day, less and less a demand from any section or class, and more and more a demand that comes from every hill and valley and plain, from all classes of people.

A word now as to compulsory education. I do not believe compulsory education is a question worth raising in the south at present. Will a child labor law then be useless as contended? Not if it provides that children shall be employed only when they possess some education. That will be an automatic compulsory educational law of itself. The selfish parent will at least see that his child gets enough education to come within the terms of the law. Of course there is difficulty that parents are going to lie, in some cases, but some practical difficulties always remain in human affairs, and this might be ultimately cured by a law requiring registry of births, as in Louisiana, a good law on other grounds.

Nor should it be forgotten by those who are thinking of the problem of child labor under southern conditions, that the southern mill man has less excuse than his northern rival for going counter to considerations of right and humanity. We are not asking any more restrictions than Massachusetts imposes, and, besides that, we have the raw material on the ground.

A glorious opportunity is before us of the south to-day. We are, as everybody knows, on the threshold of such an industrial development as certainly we have never known before. We have raw material in things, and raw material in children. We have the wide open book of experience which wisdom has written for us in the northern states and in other lands, so that we have

no need and no excuse to repeat the blunders of other ages and peoples. When was ever, in the files of time such a people face to face with such an opportunity to be both prosperous and wise? The *ante-bellum* south, around which still linger memories tinged with romance, like the clouds in an evening sky gilded with the light of the departed sun, suffered perhaps, from too much or, better, from misdirected sentiment. We are in grave danger of swinging, pendulum-like, to the opposite extreme, and becoming sordid. Let us my fellow southerners, steer the ship of state between Scylla and Charybdis, and let us join the forward world movement for the uplifting of humanity, that the sun which rises upon our children's children may look down upon a people with a reasonable amount of material prosperity but above all strong in that righteousness which exalteth a nation. The very air is vibrant with the jubilant notes of the Song of Fraternity; be it ours to avoid that "little rift within the lute, which by and by may make the music mute;" We stand at the parting of the ways; let us, for the few brief years that are ours and that join the past and future, so far as in us lies, help towards the consummation of all things, the reign of righteousness and peace in a perfected human society.

COMMON SENSE AND CO-OPERATION IN CHILD SAVING.

BY HASTINGS H. HART, LL. D., SUPERINTENDENT OF THE ILLINOIS CHILDREN'S HOME AND AID SOCIETY.

The child-saving movement is an evolution. For fifty years, from 1848 to 1898, it had advanced by slow and natural development. In the past five years, as is sometimes the case in the development of social movements, it has advanced by leaps and bounds and in some respects has made as much progress in the past five years as in the preceding twenty-five years. The great meeting of the National Conference of Charities and Correction in New York, in 1898, marked an epoch in this evolution. At

that meeting it became apparent that the controversy which had raged for nearly fifty years, since the organization of the New York Children's Aid Society by the late Charles Loring Brace, between the advocates of the plan of bringing up children in institutions and the plan of placing dependent children in selected family homes was nearing its conclusion. At the Cincinnati meeting in 1899 that controversy was finally closed and a common basis of mutual understanding was reached in the noble report drawn by Hon. Thomas L. Mulry of New York, and signed by every member of the committee, in which it was declared, "All workers agree that the home is the natural place to properly develop a child. . . . Your committee is emphatically of the opinion that 'the ounce of prevention is better than the pound of cure, and it strongly urges upon all charitable people the absolute necessity of preserving the home wherever possible. . . . If, instead of turning over such families to relief societies or the public charge, charitable men and women would take a personal interest in such cases, and each would take under care such a family, help them materially, give them also the 'alms of good advice,' . . . giving them assistance in a way that will not degrade the beneficiary, much will have been done to advance the great question of the care of dependent children."

The committee emphasized "the good work accomplished by the institutions in the past, as well as the fact that the institution has an important place to fill in the future on the disciplinary and educational lines and the care of those children who are prevented by circumstances from being placed in homes."

The report took the ground that many children now in institutions "might well be placed in good homes, provided the families were of the same religious faith as the child," and that "the earlier they are placed in such families the better it is for the child, as the motive which induces one to take a child of tender years is apt to be more disinterested than when they are old enough to be utilized as help."

The report concluded with the discussion of the subject of placing children as follows: "There are homes in abundance throughout our cities, our towns, our farming sections, for every orphan child, if the people would but open their hearts

and brighten their homes by studying in what way they may best show their love for their less fortunate fellow-beings."

The committee which signed this report was an exceedingly representative one. It consisted of Hon. Thomas L. Mulry, president of the St. Vincent de Paul Society, New York, chairman; Professor G. A. Merrill, superintendent of the State School for Dependent Children at Owatonna, Minn; Hastings H. Hart, superintendent of the Illinois Children's Home and Aid Society; Mr. Robert W. Hebbard, secretary of the State Board of Charities in New York; Mr. W. B. Streeter, agent of the Board of State Charities of Indiana, in charge of dependent children; Mr. Edward A. Hull, a prominent Roman Catholic of Boston, Mass.; Mr. J. J. Kelso, Dominion superintendent of dependent and neglected children of Ontario; Miss Mary Willcox Brown, general secretary of the Henry Watson Children's Aid Society of Baltimore, and Mr. Hugh F. Fox, president of the New Jersey State Board of Children's Guardians and chairman of this present committee.

Such a deliverance, coming from such a committee, had a profound significance, and was accepted as presenting common ground on which, practically the entire body of people engaged in child-saving work in North America now stand. This means that the children's aid societies of Boston, New York, Philadelphia, Baltimore and the Canadian cities together with the twenty-three children's home societies which work in the great interior states, the "state public schools" for dependent children in Michigan, Wisconsin, Minnesota and other states; the magnificent establishments of the Roman Catholic Church, headed by the great Catholic Protectory at Westchester, in the suburbs of New York, and followed by a multitude of beautiful and efficient Catholic institutions for children; the multitude of non-Catholic orphan asylums, half orphan asylums, children's homes, industrial schools for dependent children and other institutions for their care, no longer stand at variance, questioning and criticising one another's methods but are to-day substantially agreed on the essential point as to the policy to be pursued in caring for neglected children. The representatives of the institutions now recognize freely and generously the value and importance of

the work done by the children's aid societies and the children's home societies and have themselves taken steps for the organization of such societies: notably, the representatives of Catholic institutions in New York and the representatives of Lutheran institutions in Wisconsin and Illinois. On the other hand the child-saving societies have withdrawn from the extreme ground which they formerly took in opposition to institutional care of children and now freely admit the importance and necessity of institutional care for defective children, as a permanent measure and for delinquent and dependent children as a temporary measure. Nearly all of these societies maintain receiving homes of their own (The Illinois Children's Home and Aid Society which I have the honor to represent, maintains four such receiving homes); and the societies avail themselves of the assistance of existing institutions for the care of children whose needs the societies are unable to meet.

This happy conclusion of the controversies of the past and this mutual agreement as to the policy to be pursued have opened up the way for a new and highly important development which has already extended widely and whose ultimate outcome cannot yet be predicted.

The enactment of juvenile court laws in Illinois, New York, Pennsylvania, Kentucky, Missouri, Wisconsin, Colorado, California and other states has greatly simplified the problem of dealing with dependent and delinquent children. In most, if not all of these laws, it is provided that the same court shall deal with both dependent and delinquent children. The question whether the child shall be dealt with as a homeless and neglected child or as a vicious and dangerous one is no longer left to accident. The court, after a patient and careful judicial inquiry, decides whether the child is to be classified as a "dependent" or a "delinquent" child and then decides whether the child shall be cared for in its own home or in some other family home or in some suitable institution.

The probation system which is an essential feature of all of the juvenile court laws, has been found as valuable for the dependent child as for the delinquent child. The juvenile court has become the common meeting ground of the child-saving so-

cieties, humane societies, foundlings homes, orphan asylums, children's homes, industrial schools, juvenile reformatories and children's hospitals; and the juvenile court has become the clearing house and the distributing center for all of them.

I believe that the time is ripe for the complete and efficient co-ordination of all of the legitimate child-saving agencies. This change must be an evolution; but I believe that it is practicable to effect such a co-ordination in the near future in the cities of Boston, Chicago, Milwaukee, Indianapolis, Denver and Sioux Falls, and that there are indications that it will soon be practicable to a very large extent in New York, Philadelphia, Baltimore, Louisville and Des Moines. I have spoken of the cities which are the social centers of the states in which they are located; but if such a movement should be effected it cannot be restricted to the cities, but must in each case involve the entire state in which the city is located. The first step for such co-ordination must be to bring about a thorough good understanding between the managers of the different children's institutions. It is necessary to do away with the rivalry and jealousy which too often exists; this, however, is a less difficult task than may at first appear. In Chicago considerable progress has been made in this direction through the agency of the Cook County Child-Saving Association. This Association is simply a conference of all of the child-saving agencies in the city. It holds from four to six meetings in each year. The meetings are held at different children's institutions and are devoted to the discussion of practical questions connected with the work of the several agencies.

The second step will be to enter into an actual co-operation, to a limited extent. This can be done readily in those cities where a juvenile court exists. If the court is efficient the judge very soon begins to differentiate his cases, and to discover the different kinds of treatment required for different children. If, now, the several institutions will place themselves at the service of the court, for whatever assistance they can render, the court immediately becomes a clearing house to distribute the children to those agencies which can best meet their diverse needs. The majority of the child-saving agencies of Chicago and indeed the State of Illinois, have already been brought into fairly harmoni-

ous action and there is an increasing disposition on the part of the institutions to come into federation.

The third step for such co-ordination, would be for the child-saving organizations to establish a clearing house of their own, outside the juvenile court — an agency created by the organizations for their mutual assistance. This organization should keep in the closest touch with the several child-saving agencies, should be thoroughly acqainted with their facilities and the lines of work in which they can accomplish the best results. This agency should receive applications and distribute children directly to those points where they can be best cared for. Many children do not need the offices of the juvenile court and ought not to load it down with unnecessary work.

The fourth step for such co-ordination is an efficient and judicious public supervision of the work of the child-saving agencies. Good institutions will not consent to be co-ordinated with institutions whose efficiency is in doubt. A wise and impartial public supervision can not only discover what agencies are really deserving of public confidence but can do much to make them really efficient.

The fifth step, for co-ordination, is to so organize and expand the existing agencies as to cover the entire state. It is impossible to carry out the system of placing out children properly unless country and village homes can be secured. The system is vicious unless the selection of such homes is wisely and cautiously done. The experience of the state of Indiana and the Province of Ontario has shown what can be done by a wise agency, covering an entire state. There is no reason why one such agency properly organized and administered should not carry on the work of examining homes and supervising children after placement for a considerable number of institutions.

The sixth step for co-ordination is for the existing child-saving agencies to assume responsibility for the establishment of new organizations. In the past, new institutions have been organized haphazard — some benevolent man or woman has made a will providing for the establishment of an orphan asylum, or a home, or a hospital, or a day nursery, without much regard to the question of actual need. The time has come when those

who propose to organize new institutions should be urged to take counsel in advance with those already engaged in similar work, in order that they may avoid duplication and may make their endeavors really productive.

In Chicago the fact came to light recently that there was a great lack of suitable hospital facilities for children, especially those suffering from contagious diseases. Formerly, the discoverers of such a lack would have proceeded to fill it in their own way, consulting only those whose immediate co-operation was needed; but now a different course is taken. The Chicago Woman's Club called a meeting of representatives of the various hospitals, the child-saving organizations, the Bureau of Charities and philanthropic citizens, for consultation. The situation was thoroughly canvassed. It was agreed that something ought to be done, but there was uncertainty as to what should be done. It was agreed therefore to undertake a systematic investigation, to ascertain: first, what facilities were available, and second, how the deficiency could be best supplied. Admirable reports were presented at a second meeting and after a free discussion, broad and comprhensive plans were proposed. The result was, the organization of a new society, called the Children's Hospital Association, to first co-ordinate and utilize the existing hospital facilities, and then to provide increased facilities in those sections of the city where they are most needed, either in connection with the existing hospitals or by building new hospitals for children. The new society has the support and good will of all the Chicago Charities.

The seventh step for such co-ordination, can be taken only by the large givers. In such a city as New York, Chicago, Philadelphia or Boston, the large contributors could well afford to maintain an efficient agency, to advise patrons with reference to proposed charitable organizations, as well as those already existing. Such an agency ought to employ a wise and expert man like Homer Folks or Alexander Johnson or Ernest Bricknell to study the situation and inform them. It would be possible by this means to direct the financial organization of charitable institutions and to absolutely prevent the establishment of unwise and ill-considered enterprises.

About three years ago a man came into the office of the Illinois Children's Home and Aid Society. He said, "I am a professional accountant, I am employed by Mr. R. W. (a wealthy capitalist) who desires to make a considerable donation to your society; but before doing so he desires to assure himself as to your business methods, etc. I wish to inquire whether you are willing to give me an opportunity to obtain the information which he desires." The opportunity was given and after a careful examination of the books and methods of the Society the expert reported to his principal. He returned to say that Mr. W. was pleased with his report, but thought that the methods of the society should be improved in two particulars, which he named. The matter was submitted to the board of directors who recognized the value of the proposed changes and voted to adopt them. I learned that the same man had adopted the same method of effecting improvements in the business methods of other charities.

What Mr. W. did on a large scale could readily be done on a large scale by a leading club or commercial organization in any large city. Such action would be liable to abuse unless directed in a large-minded and philanthropic manner; but if properly guarded it could become an invaluable agency, not only for the improvement of charitable agencies but also for the practical education of those who are willing and anxious to support them.

The large contributors of Denver have for years contributed to a general fund, which is distributed among certain approved charities, on a plan somewhat similar to that pursued in Liverpool, England. In the report to this Conference from California, Miss Felton describes the newly organized Charities Endorsement Committee to investigate in San Francisco the charities that appeal to the public for support, and to issue its official card to such as are doing efficient and intelligent work.

CHILD LABOR AND ILLITERACY.

BY HON. HOKE SMITH, EX-SECRETARY OF THE INTERIOR, ATLANTA.

I do not agree with that class of men who claim that a child can be worked all day and then be properly taught at night. I do not even believe that a man who has been compelled to work in his office all day is entirely suited to address an audience like you at night. Yet I will say a few words on the subject under consideration.

I have the greatest respect for my friend who has just addressed you (Mr. D. A. Tompkins). He is one of the ablest and most useful citizens of our section, but I can not agree with him in all of his positions. It is true that England took a long time to right the evils of child labor, and it is true that Massachusetts was not very fast about it, but as for me and my house the sooner legislation comes in Georgia the better pleased we shall be.

In 1890 the census report showed us that there were employed in our states, children between the ages of ten and fifteen to the number of more than 860,000. A recent article in Frank Leslie's Magazine claims that the census of 1900 will disclose the fact that 1,750,000 children of that age are at work in our states. Unless legislation prevents the increase in the next ten years will be even greater. What are we going to do about it? Are we to wait or act? It took in England three-quarters of a century of fighting by the friends of the children before legislation was secured to fairly protect them from the factories, the mines and the workshops. The ablest statesmen of Great Britain in the early part of the last century began the fight. They were told then that the industries of Great Britain would be ruined, and that Germany and France would oustrip her. The same kind of arguments are made in most of our states to-day. It took a long time then for the friends of the young to overcome the influence and power of those who were using children, and the willingness to let them work, the willingness not of masters, but of idle and brutal fathers. All during that history reports to the English parliament are filled with records

of shame and suffering and misery. Before her commissions the ablest doctors of Great Britain testified that to such an extent had the use of children in factories and mills gone that a permanent injury to the physical condition of mankind was threatened.

A report of the French war department has shown that in those sections of France where child labor exists the recruiting officers find not more than half as many men who can meet the requirements of the army as in those sections where child labor does not exist. If we come to our own country we have ample evidence of the injurious effect of child labor. In a report made a few years back in New Jersey, by the inspectors of factories and work shops it is stated that the average child becomes delicate, puny, ignorant, and that at "the age of thirteen their faces have little old, worn expressions." They can no longer play; they do not enjoy it. They do not care for school or training. All their energy and vitality have been sapped.

But we need not go to records and reports for information. Turn to your own children. See what is needed to train them. Suppose they were to be confined long hours in dark walls and close rooms, without leadership, without instruction, without direction, at monotonous work, what would happen to them? Think of all your loving care and training by the best teachers, in the best schools and all that is done to strengthen them. Then think of that all taken away, and put your own children in such places as these child laborers fill. What would happen? Find any mill you please. Let the president be as kind as he may — and I want to state here that so far as my observation goes the large majority of the men at the head of cotton mills in this section are kind and helpful to their children and to their employees — but in spite of that fact you will find ignorant and pallid faces, dejected countenances, appearance which indicates sickness and the lowest vitality.

The same New Jersey report to which I referred, declares that 60 per cent. of the children 12 years of age had not heard of the United States or of Europe, and 95 per cent. of them had never heard of the Revolutionary War. If you wish information seek the places where children in their early years are

worked in your neighborhood and you will find the effect upon their young lives.

We were told that children should be trained in the way they should go, which means, as I understand it, that their lives should be shaped by controlling influences thrown round them while they are young. When Jesus said, Suffer little children to come to Me, and forbid them not, it seems to me that He meant also to say to us that we should go to them and prepare them in their childhood that in their manhood they may be ready for the kingdom of heaven. Our forefathers founded a home in the wilderness not simply from a love of liberty, but because they desired to build the highest standard of manhood that the world had ever known. Every page of our national constitution breathes the spirit of that time. While property is to be safeguarded, the first thought of all with Americans is the development of a great citizenship. The whole plan of our government, the whole scheme of our legislation, puts man first and money afterwards. All over our land men and women are meeting and organizing that the educational institutions of America shall be improved. European journals are referring to what they call the educational spirit of the United States. Even in our own section where we have been hampered in the development of our school systems there is scarcely a village which has not its nine months of public school training for white and black both. In the rural section the state appropriations are supplemented by local taxation so that the term shall not be less than eight months a year. The fact is recognized. It is past the realm of discussion, that the children of the land, every child of our land, is entitled to a first class common school English education. It is to be a part of the heritage of our American people. What then of this one million seven hundred and fifty thousand children who are shut off at work? Can we afford to leave them to grow up in ignorance, and then to associate with the balance of our people? Can we afford the injury to our citizenship that would come from this vast increase in the number of ignorant citizens? Not only ignorant, but so injured physically, that they are old and worn out by the time they have reached middle life. We have been told that the number of these children en-

gaged at labor is increasing, as the natural outgrowth of the increase in machinery. Can we afford to let these children grow up in ignorance and illiteracy? The true American spirit demands that every American child shall be educated and the demand has gone through the land that no one of them shall lack it, no, not one.

It gives me great pleasure to see this conference gathered in our city. The doctrines which you advocate, and the charity which rests upon your banner, know no state lines. They know no section. To you there is no north, no east, no south, no west. You know only the great American people whom you love. Your love is bounded by no locality, it reaches all the people of all localities. No party bitterness separates you, no strife of creeds. You would serve all the people of all of our country, and we rejoice to have you with us for that reason.

We love our country; we love all of our country, and it is helpful to have people from the different states come together that the tie of our love may be welded by personal contact. We are proud of our commerce; we wish to see our flag upon every sea, our vessels in every harbor. But we would have our officers and our seamen carry to the people whom they visit not merely the story of our commerce. We would have them tell also that our America is strong because she loves her people more than she loves what her people have, and that one of the first doctrines of America is that a great people can only be developed by elevating the children of the nation, and that in America child labor shall create illiteracy on the part of not one child; no, not one.

THE CHILDREN'S AGE.

BY MRS. E. E. WILLIAMSON, CHAIRMAN EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE STATE BOARD OF CHILDREN'S GUARDIANS, NEW JERSEY.

This is the "children's age." No better history can be written of man's growth in wisdom than of the advancement in thought and learning in regard to child life. The nation has to deal with no social question so important and the individual with none so vital. The treatment of the child affects the solution of all other social problems. Man has always had the child with him and has always come under the spell of child-beauty. Wordsworth leaned over the cradle to catch the "visionary gleams" of "the glories he hath known." Goethe in his old age was always responsive to the gaiety of the young; George Sand grown old was happy with children. The words of the Divine teacher, "Suffer little children to come unto me and forbid them not," strike a chord of sympathy in every human heart. All honor should be paid to the modern thinkers, poets, historians, novelists and teachers for stirring the interest in child-life which has resulted in bringing the inquisitive eye of science to bear upon the development and training of the child.

Rousseau, Charles Dickens, Froebel, Victor Hugo are a few who have shown us the pathos of the suffering child. Mrs. Browning's song finds an echo in all hearts:

"Do you hear the children weeping, O my brothers,
Ere the sorrow comes with years?
They are leaning their young heads against their mothers,
And that cannot stop their tears.
The young lambs are bleating in the meadows,
The young birds are chirping in the nest,
The young fawns are playing with the shadows,
The young flowers are blooming toward the west—
But the young, young children, O my brothers,
They are weeping bitterly:
They are weeping in the playtime of the others,
In the country of the free."

Charles Dickens' Oliver Twist and Joe, the crossing sweeper,

roused a strong public sympathy among English people, and David Copperfield's history started an agitation which brought reforms. Victor Hugo stirred the hearts of the French people to warmer impulses for the true nature-child.

In the brief time allowed I can only call to your attention some of the forces that have brought and are bringing about with scientific accuracy the development of children and their care and training.

It is a national maxim that free education is the birthright of every child. In almost every state of the Union all children between the ages of five and thirteen are obliged to attend school. Manual training is being considered more and more as an essential part of school work. Truant officers and truant schools are, in many states and cities, at the disposal of the school authorities. In the larger cities of the west and east there is a steady growth in the creation of "systematized play" for children. In cases of dependency the almhouse as a factor in the care of children has been eliminated. There is a gradual growth of a desire for home life versus institution. In cases of delinquency the probation system, juvenile courts, reform schools, reformatories, indeterminate sentence and parole have been provided.

For cases of physical and mental deficiency there are schools for the blind, deaf, deaf-mutes and children with arrested development; homes for the crippled and deformed; institutions for the epileptic and feeble-minded, and hospitals for the sick and insane.

Other social forces include day nurseries, kindergartens, boys' and girls' clubs, libraries, industrial and trade schools with the various branches too many to enumerate, and the penny provident bank. The religious institutions and social settlements of our country are using all these forces.

Under the compulsory education laws the truant officer is a very important part of the educational system. When he does his work properly he establishes friendly relations with the child, the home and the school. With adequate school facilities, the truant officer, and the truant school, no child in America will grow up without an education.

In the moral development of all children play is character building. The play instinct is always vigorous and dominant. "The essence of children's play is the acting of a part and the realizing of a new situation." The boy actor when he impersonates the hero of San Juan steps out of his everyday self, and so out of his everyday world—into a realm of pure ideals and honorable actions which transform his surroundings and make him take on the look and meaning which the part assigns to him. The "gang" left to itself with the dime novel, Police Gazette or the exaggerated self-told history of the boy just out of jail, meets in some dugout to play the villain and desperado. The impulse to act a part meets all of us very early and grows out of the assimilative instinct. How necessary then that the child should be directed in his play and that he should be given the proper time in which to play.

The steady growth of public opinion against almshouse life has resulted in the creation of state boards and private associations for the care of dependent children. "The Care of Destitute, Neglected and Delinquent Children," a text book written by the Hon. Homer Folks, commissioner of charities of New York City, tells the history of the child-caring agencies of the country and is heartily to be recommended.

The Indiana State Board uses county homes as temporary stopping places for dependent children, as the system requires that all children shall be placed with private families. The Indiana law authorizes the appointment of township boards of children's guardians under the management of a state placing-out agency, which is itself under the direction of the state board of charities.

New Jersey has a state board of children's guardians which takes into custody all children who become public charges. It uses no temporary home, placing children directly in families which must be, under the law, of the religious faith of the parents or guardians of the children. It has charge of children until they reach their majority.

In Pennsylvania dependent children are cared for by the children's aid society which is supported partly by the state and partly by private subscriptions. As in New Jersey children are

boarded at the expense of the county until free homes are found for them.

Michigan was the first to establish an exclusive state system for the care of destitute children. Its great public school located at Coldwater is on the cottage plan and from it children are placed as rapidly as possible in free homes.

Massachusetts was the first to separate destitute children from adults in the almshouses. The Boston Children's Aid Society has been in active operation since 1863, placing children in private homes. Massachusetts has for years had most efficient agencies, both public and private, for handling its destitute children. Many of its private institutions are now closing their doors and placing all their children in private homes.

I shall not dwell upon the forces which are doing such noble work for delinquent children, they have been brought to your attention so well by the Hon. Mr. Barrows at his section meetings. Mr. Fox, in his able report and at his section meetings has told you of the forces at work upon the child-labor problem.

In closing my brief paper I call your attention to the tremendous amount of work being done for children by the religious institutions and by the settlements. Boys' clubs are a part of nearly all large church organizations and settlements in our important cities. These clubs have become scientific educational factors in the broadest sense, stimulating the social feeling in many distinct ways. The boy, desiring older companionship, finds his ideal in the friend who takes a personal interest in his welfare and development. These clubs reach all classes of boys.

To give an adequate idea of what is being done for children in Great Britain and on the continent would take the time of an entire section meeting so I can only speak of some of the forces. The movement in behalf of the child has received special momentum along certain lines. In England clubs for boys and girls are as numerous and are doing as good work as in our own country. France antedates us with her probation system and by it has almost eliminated the commitment of children. Germany

gives her children education of a high order—the kindergarten being considered an essential part.

Enough has been said, I think, of the strength and character of the forces to show that a scientific view of child culture, care and training has taken deep root in this progressive age. In the child you have a youthful organism that constantly changes. Some one has said that the child represents an unstable equilibrium. The child does not resemble the adult, whose standards do not apply to the child. He has a growing organization that needs perfection and care. You have an organism that responds to the environment into which you throw it. The whole question can be summed up in this, how shall we put our masses of children in the proper environment?

Emerson says, "We need all our resources to live in the world that is to be used and decorated by us. Brothers, I draw new hope from the atmosphere we breathe to-day, from the healthy sentiment of the American people. The age has new convictions. I cannot distrust this great knighthood of virtue, or doubt that the interest of science, of letters, of politics and humanity, are safe. I think their hands are strong enough to hold up the Republic. I read the promise of better times and of greater men."

CHILD LABOR AS AN ECONOMIC QUESTION.

BY A. B. FARQUHAR, LL. D., YORK, PA.

We have heard much discussion of the question of "child labor," both in opposition and in advocacy, with general agreement that industries making use of it derive therefrom an important economic advantage. To the apologists the importance of this advantage appears reason enough for continuing the system; while the opponents insist that it is more than counterbalanced by arrested development of the race and evils of other kinds on which they lay stress. But it seems at least worth while

to give some serious attention to the question whether this confident claim on the one side, and concession on the other, are quite justified. For my own part I should say decidedly that they are not. As I see it, it is, in large degree, a particular case of the general question of intelligent versus unintelligent labor, in which I can by no means allow advantage to the latter. Intelligence in the working man is apt to be well paid, but I cannot see that it is comparatively overpaid.

If it were any real advantage to the manufacturer to use a larger force of low-grade laborers, instead of a smaller force of the high-grade sort, costing him as much in his weekly payroll, he would, as a rule, seek the former rather than the latter. But as a matter of fact he does not. As a matter of fact, the most successful manufacturers are the very ones most ready to employ highly skilled workmen at higher cost. At the head of the list there would be no hesitation in placing the world's most successful business man and greatest philanthropist Andrew Carnegie; and no one was ever more alert than he, in his active business career, to discover, appropriate, advance, and handsomely compensate artisans of peculiar talent. It is true, to the great body of his employees this eminent exemplar of manufacturing success did pay more than the market rates, but he has always regarded his highest-paid men as those who most fully earned what he paid them, and as being, for that reason, the kind that he could most economically employ. The experience of other manufacturers is largely of the same character, their best paid men being employed where economy was most necessary. In my own works I have always sought for intelligent operatives, and though I have always employed a great many that were not so intelligent, it is only because the latter were to be had when the former were not. My conviction is that intelligent labor is economically better, and it would seem a logical conclusion that the labor of very young children cannot as a rule be economically advantageous.

Those parts of the country in which the labor of young children is employed in factories are the parts in which manufacturing generally is in its infancy. Where there is a longer establishment of industrial production, there such labor is forbidden by statute, and there manufacturers would not dream of

seeking to have the statute repealed. The agitation for statutes of this kind was more prolonged and more intense in England than ever in this country. Less than a hundred years ago a child there was expected to be self-sustaining at the age of seven, boys and girls of ten years were kept at the bobbins for 14 hours a day, till ready to drop from exhaustion, and permanently stunted in mental and bodily growth as by an epidemic blight. Legislation regulating child labor encountered and overcame more opposition there than could be mastered against it in any of our States. But England will not return to the practice of a half-century ago, any more than our northern states will. And yet I cannot but believe that if there was truly an economic advantage, for England or for us, in repealing prohibitive statutes and resuming former practice, it might be done. Competition of producers is too keen for the settlement of such questions on other than economic grounds.

But the economic question is far indeed from being exhausted when we have considered only the conditions of production of fabrics. A nation has, as I have no need whatever to remind you, more important production that that to consider; and the economics of producing fabrics are trivial in comparison with the economics of producing citizens. Is not the most precious product of a nation in any generation, the crop of citizens who are to constitute the nation in the next generation? It should be superfluous to argue such a question in communities that spend on common schools the liberal sums that all our States take pride in appropriating, or in communities where home life and home sentiments form so essential a feature as they do with us. No—we do not need to be told, or to tell, the importance of sympathetic and judicious training for those who are to represent us after we have ceased to act; by the spirit of altruism only is the world advanced, and in that view the question of what sort of men and women we are making of the juvenile workers in our factories is paramount to every other. We do rightly to teach, and insist on, industrious habits; we do rightly to teach useful trades to those capable of learning; but we cannot fairly and candidly claim that the system of child labor does no more or no worse than this.

Adam Smith, when professor in Glasgow a century and a quarter ago, wrote two important works: one on the sources and conditions of national wealth, which was epoch-making, in which he viewed men as interested in nothing but the production and retention of wealth; the other on moral sentiments, in which men were treated as having characteristics altogether different. Such a divergence is doubtless convenient in expounding different sides of human nature from the point of view of a pedagogue; but it is possible that Professor Smith's method has had an unfortunate effect on the whole course of thought after him, an effect which the very profundity and eminence of the man has strengthened. We have no right to make a total separation between man as a wealth producer and man as a moral being. We have no right to consider any economic question fully treated when ethical considerations are neglected, or any moral question when no attention is paid in its treatment to material well-being. Each study looks, in its own way, to the proper conduct of life, and, if we may believe that right conduct is one thing and not several irreconcilable things, then whatever throws light on a part must illuminate the whole. Plainly, then, a thing cannot be at the same time morally wrong and economically right. We recognize this truth whenever we affirm that "honesty is the best policy," and we have only to give it a wider application to decide the question under discussion. Believing as I do that the labor of young children in factories is unsound in morals, I cannot believe it to be sound in economics.

COMMON SENSE AND COOPERATION.

BY JOHN B. MONTGOMERY, SUPT. MICHIGAN STATE SCHOOL.

"The future of our country depends upon the education of our children." "The boys and girls of to-day are to be the men and women of to-morrow." These are old, familiar sayings and true to fact. In view of these truths, we naturally conclude that since our places in the different vocations of life are soon to be filled by our children and the future of our country depends upon their education, it behooves us to look well to their education in order to produce for our country's welfare as nearly perfect man and womanhood as possible. This should be the great work of every one blessed with children of his own or intrusted with the care and education of others. It is in their care and training for future usefulness that common sense and cooperation play so important a part.

All will agree in the idea of educational importance, but will differ widely as to the kind and quantity necessary to produce the best results. For this reason the state has found it necessary, for its own good and the general good of the country, to assume control of public education. States have in many instances, like Michigan, enacted laws compelling every child to attend school until he is fifteen years of age and prohibiting from working in stores, factories, or hotels all under fourteen years of age.

At first glance, this law seems to be embodied in common sense, for besides compelling avaricious parents to send their children to school until they have acquired a rudimentary education, it removes them from competition with adult labor and protects them from immoral and unsanitary surroundings.

On second examination, however, we find it conflicts with advanced thought along educational lines. A few years ago, the kindergarten idea was laughed at and looked upon as a public luxury, but to-day what a change has come over public sentiment! The kindergarten, instead of a fad, is regarded as one of the keystones of our educational system and its continuance advo-

cated by leading educators through all grades, even into colleges and universities, under the various names of manual training, industrial training, domestic science, etc., etc. Why this change in educational sentiment? Is it not because those to whose hands the education of our children has been entrusted have discovered a serious fallacy in a system that educates the head to the exclusion of the hand; that instead of our high schools, colleges and universities turning out educated men and women, they have been turning out half-educated men and women,—only half prepared to fight the battle of life? If then, we admit that the kindergarten, the manual training school, the industrial school and domestic science school are essential to the highest development of our children, is not the work in factory, or store of equal merit, under conditions such as will not injure health or morals? I realize that I am treading dangerously near forbidden ground to even suggest factory or store as a possible means of helpful education.

In reading the 20th annual report of state factory inspection for Michigan, I was pleased to note the importance placed upon the question of child-labor and the wholesome suggestions offered by the inspectors relative to amendments. The following are a few extracts from the report referred to: "Child-labor law is a subject that for years has received the most serious thought of our brightest men, — not alone in our own state of Michigan, but also in her sister states,— men who have at heart not only the welfare of the laboring men of to-day, but also the culture and advancement of the rising generation who shall, in a few years, come upon the stage of action and will then be expected to fill the places of those who are now conducting affairs. Therefore the boy or girl who steps across the threshold of man or womanhood in this 20th century without education is handicapped for life. The opportune time is now and it is here the school law and the child-labor law of Michigan have wisely been laid down to assist in the accomplishment of this important event. To my mind the labor law can be improved. Section 3, reads: "No child under the age of sixteen years shall be employed by any person, firm or corporation conducting any manufacturing establishment in this State, at employment whereby its life

or limb is endangered, or its health is likely to be injured, or its morals may be depraved, by such employment. No female under the age of twenty-one years and no male under the age of eighteen years shall be allowed to clean machinery in motion." To this should be added; 'except during school vacations when children between 12 and 14 years might be employed at harmless labor in buildings not using machinery.' This provision would eliminate much of the trouble and confusion, for I find there is a general opinion that the child might be employed during school vacations and I fail to see where harm could come to such children employed in the nailing of handles on fruit baskets and other similar work.

Another inspector of thirty-six prosperous counties of Michigan says, "I believe the law affecting the employment of children is defective, especially when it applies to manufacturing institutions outside large cities where moral conditions are much better. The law aims to prohibit the continuous employment of children, thereby preventing ignorance; it also intends to suppress and correct evil conditions and unsafe surroundings. When these do not exist, the law is not of so great a necessity and its provisions should not apply during summer vacation months, viz., June, July and August. It is better for many children whose health and strength will permit to engage in some employment when not in school; they should be permitted to contribute to their own support, rather than be allowed to run at large.

This needed reform has been frequently brought to my notice when children employed at some light work amid healthy and moral surroundings have been discharged because of being under age. The foreman in every instance had given the children employment at the earnest solicitation of the parents who assert that, when employed, their children are learning habits of industry and gaining experience that will be of use to them in after years. "Nothing can be more detrimental," continues this inspector, "than a cultivation of a taste for continued ease and pleasure. We expect a child when grown up to be self-supporting, even more, it is incumbent on him to provide for a family. That he shall be educated in everything except his life work is a mis-

take; compelling him to spend his youthful days in ease and pleasure, thereby cultivating a dislike for labor, is wrong. Of course, reasonable care should be exercised. Children should not be compelled to work unsheltered in inclement weather, nor should the hours be long enough to preclude all recreation, and the surroundings should be healthy, moral and free from physical danger."

A few months ago in one of our principal Michigan cities, several boys ranging in years from 14 to 17 planned and executed a number of robberies; the parents were among the most influential citizens of the city and supposed their sons were attending the public schools, but school had become distasteful to the youths and instead of complying with the wishes of their parents they turned their attention to crime. Some were sentenced to the State Reformatory and others under 16 years of age were sentenced to the Industrial School for Boys at Lansing. How much better it would be to put all such restless lads to work in some factory, store or farm where the surroundings would be wholesome to body, mind and morals and give them an opportunity to work off that surplus energy which either makes or ruins the man. Labor is needful for the health and well being of every child above twelve years of age and should be a part of his education; his health and morals demand it; but such labor should not be in competition with mature labor, nor under conditions that would result in his physical or moral injury.

Industrial schools and reformatories are full of young men and women who are serving time on account of enforced idleness at a period in their lives when they should have been learning habits of industry. I maintain that a great injustice is done every child who is not taught to labor and to respect labor before he is fourteen years of age and I predict that the time is not far distant when physical education will hold as important a place in our school curriculum as the intellectual. Then may we hope to see our penal, reformatory, charitable institutions, and charitable organizations less in evidence, because less needed.

THE CHILD AND THE FARMS.

BY REV. G. D. LANGSTON, ATLANTA.

One of our first considerations should be of the child of the farm, when he reaches the proper age for the school room. If we give to the country child, when he has arrived at the age to take an interest in his surroundings, the educational advantages he should have in the way of technical training in farming, mining, or what not; in other words—if we show him how to make his farm, mine or other pursuit a pleasure, and at the same time profitable, we shall save him from the city, from the alms house, the jail, the penitentiary; yes, and from the cotton mills, and other factories that are sapping the vital forces of the children of our section.

When we begin to teach the child of the farm, of nature, of animals, of the cultivation of diversified crops, and in such rotation as to build up the impoverished soil, we shall begin to save him from the things which we try to pull him out of a few years later. This great influx to the cities and the manufacturing centers is an evil that is responsible for many of our troubles. It has been caused by the lack of advantages, the lack of profitable pursuits, and the general unattractiveness of the country. Lack of effort on our part to improve it is largely responsible for this condition. The sparse settlement and absence of companionship is another reason. I say, therefore, that our efforts must be in the direction of saving to the country those who should remain there, and the bringing back to the country those of us in the towns who are still "hay-seeds" — we must promote immigration by stopping emigration. If we teach these children of the farms other trades, and give them other occupations, they will of themselves stay out of the mills and factories.

Let us look for a moment at the conditions in the mill towns of the South to-day: The children are put to work at a shamefully young age, they are overworked, under-fed, insufficiently clad, and entirely untrained and uninstructed. Their small earnings often go for the support of some drunken or shiftless

parent. We are calling upon our legislative bodies to give us a child-labor bill to rectify these evils.

Suppose our appeals should be answered, and the legislative bodies of Georgia should at their next session, pass a child-labor bill; what new conditions would be created? Unless we are going to establish at the mill centers for the training of these children, who are not permitted to work, institutions that will teach them along other lines, all of the evils enumerated will still exist, except that, idleness, which is too often the cause of mischief, will take the place of the evil of overwork. We are not ready for a child labor bill unless we are going to take hold of the situation as it surely will exist at that time, and do our duty. Our work in this section must be one of training, teaching, *formation,* instead of *reformation.*

We are busying ourselves just now trying to attract immigration. Among the first questions asked by the immigrant, who represents the class we most need in this section, will be: What are your tax rates, and what are you doing to reduce them, and at the same time keep up your public institutions? What is the condition of your schools, and what are you doing to improve them? What of the negro problem, and what are you doing to build up a white race to cope with it? These are some of the vital points with us who have lived here all of our days, as well as for the newcomer.

Earnest, substantial work along the lines heretofore followed by, or at least growing out of the deliberations of this body, should begin with the southern contingent here, and to count for any material advantage, it must be kept up. The movements inaugurated here must not be abandoned.

V.

Juvenile Delinquents.

THE REFORMATION OF JUVENILE DELINQUENTS, THROUGH THE JUVENILE COURT.

BY JUDGE BEN. B. LINDSEY, COLORADO.

Any work to prevent an individual committing crime is a more important work than the punishment of an individual who has committed crime. Misdirected and sometimes maudlin sympathy must not be associated with intelligent, earnest effort to prevent crime. Every actual vicious criminal guilty of a repeated offence had better be locked up for life, as the best thing for him and for society. I grant that punishment of those who commit crime is intended as a preventive measure. Wisely administered, it is a justifiable method until we can find something better. Yet, the history of criminology will show that punishment of individuals is not a successful method of preventing crime. If it were, there ought to be fewer people in jail every year. On the contrary, crime is on the increase. Each year adds to the inmates of nearly every reformatory in this country. There is no justification for the punishment of a human being unless it is necessary to help him, or (what is more important than to the individual) unless it is necessary to protect society, that is, to best secure to all individuals security of life, property, and the pursuit of happiness. Any other view would be to admit the doctrine of vengeance as just, wise and humane. What we seek is justice, administered with wisdom, humanity and charity. It is a sad and at the same time important thing that the increase in crime is largely among the youth of this nation. Facts and figures in this respect come almost like blows to remind us of our responsibility, and to suggest our short-sightedness.

It is said that over half the inmates of reformatories, jails and prisons in this country are under 25 years of age. Some authorities say under 23. We now know that the seeds of criminality in the great majority of cases are planted in youth. The English prison commission recently reported to Parliament that the age of 16 to 20 was essentially the criminal age, and between 10 and 16 the most important age for the care and formation of character. The Earl of Shaftsbury, after much study, declared that not two in any 100 criminals in London had formed the habits which led to criminality after the 20th year. The age between 10 and 16 is also the religious age. It is that age when the good, true, and the beautiful are most effective upon life, and leave the most lasting impression.

There are from three to five times as many children, in proportion to population by ages, arrested every year in the cities of this country as adults. Seventeen thousand under 16 it is said, were arrested in Chicago the year before the juvenile court law went into effect. A similar condition may be found in nearly every large city. These children are all subjected more or less to the contaminating influence of the jails and the criminal courts. Atlanta is much better off in this respect than some cities I know. Yet yesterday I visited your jails. The annual report of your chief of police shows 16,434 arrests for 1902. 1155 of these are children 15 years of age or under; 2808 between 15 and 20 years of age; a total of nearly 4,000 under 20 years of age. Nearly 25 per cent. of the total arrests were boys and girls, generally about 20 boys to one girl. Of course the negro element adds to the difficulties of the problem in the South, and the great majority of such arrests are of that race. It is an illustration of the fact that the handling of this problem may depend to a large extent on local conditions. What might be done successfully in one city might be impracticable in another. Leaving out duplicates and taking individual cases of children arrested for a period of say six years, between the tenth and sixteenth year, you will find in most cities probably that one out of every five mothers' sons land behind the bars in this important period. This was true in Denver, and Denver is better off in this respect than many other cities. The period of incarceration may have been only two

hours or two months. The important point is that the children were in jail, or arrested for some offence which landed them there. Therefore the majority of law breakers in cities, in proportion to ages, and according to arrests, are among the young. This is no reflection on the children. It is a reflection on the parents, the government and the people, if it is any reflection on any body. These children do not know how to obey. We want to teach them how and why. They must learn to respect the law, to respect authority, to respect the rights of others, for their own good and happiness as well as that of others. This is the first step in reform. If the home in which this duty rests cannot do it, the state must; and, in performing this function, a purely parental one, it must frequently deal with the home, the parent, and the child. The state must handle the problem as a wise parent should. It never has and never can do this through jails, prisons, and criminal courts, as such. These things may be all right for adults. They are monstrous for children. Their method of dealing with children in the past is a sad commentary on the injunction of our Divine Master, who said of any one "who would harm one of these little ones that it were better that a millstone be hanged about his neck and he be cast into the sea." The harm the State has wrought upon the youth of this land by its bungling methods in attempting to reform a child waywardly disposed, will some day form one of the blackest pages in the history of our criminal jurisprudence. But, I predict that we are on the eve of a great awakening, when the dark blot will be obliterated in the refulgence and radiance of new methods founded in the love and teachings of our Divine Master and the tenderness of a mother for an erring child.

A number of systems are combining to bring about this change. No one will accomplish it alone. All will not accomplish it entirely. Each has its place in the great work of reform. The industrial school is doing splendid work. It is no longer looked upon as a reform school. It no longer has about it the odor of degradation. The time is almost here when a boy from an industrial school, as those institutions are now being conducted, may hold as honorable a place in the community, and be

as proud of his record at that school as his more fortunate brother from the university. Certainly this is as it should be.

I am going to speak particularly of the juvenile court and what it can be made as a means of correction at home — this side the institution. There should be no hesitation to send a boy or girl to an institution when it is a proper case. I rather fear the danger of not sending them there when I ought to. These schools are doing work as important to the state as your universities. It is not appreciated and little understood by the general public. Their superintendents deserve to rank for character and ability with the presidents of universities. They should be the best material among men that the state can secure. They have a responsibility and a duty to the state that certainly equals, and in my judgment, exceeds that of any other educator.

Yet, with any kind of a decent home, the place for a boy or girl is within that home. We all agree to this. The juvenile court and probation system will keep him there if it is proper and possible. It is proper unless the home and environments are of a character positively dangerous to the welfare of the child or unless it has demonstrated its inability to correct it when evilly disposed. It is possible in most cases where it was hopeless before.

I do not know how to explain what may be done with the juvenile court and its offices better than to tell what has been done in the court over which I have the honor to preside and to refer to some of the principles underlying the methods pursued.

Its purpose is, of course, to prevent crime before crime is actually committed. To correct, to aid, and assist those who might be criminals, or who might do a criminal act, to avoid falling into either misfortune. It deals only with children and those responsible for the faults of children. It realizes that we cannot have good men and women unless we start with good children. Because of infancy both the constitution and laws of the state and public sentiment will justify methods of dealing with children which would not be tolerated in dealing with adults. It believes in what statistics show, that the inception of crime is in the waywardness of misdirected children. It would take

care of these children in adolescence, when character is plastic and can be molded as clay in the potter's hands. It would help to form character and not postpone the evil day in a bungling attempt to reform it. All of this is easily said. It is not so easily done. It can be done. It is being done in some cities. It is a strenuous life. It requires men and women of intelligence, tact, skill, and enthusiasm. It is not so much the law as the work. It is not so much the statute as those who administer it. But, I do not want to underestimate the importance of the law. Without it we would be fearfully handicapped; and yet without any statutory law, but invoking the principles of the chancery courts for hundreds of years in dealing with the welfare of the children of the state, and with intelligent, earnest effort, much can be accomplished in any city in this land to relieve some of the distressing conditions imposed by the crimnal law.

The original law under which the juvenile court of Denver was established was enacted in the winter of 1899. The statute was very brief, and provided, in substance, that any child under 16, incorrigible or guilty of immoral conduct, could be proceeded against in the county court as a juvenile disorderly person. The county court is the probate court, and has a certain limited jurisdiction in all civil cases. It is in no sense, however, a criminal court. Systematic effort was not made to try all childrens' cases in this court, until nearly two years later, when, in January, 1901, a probation system was established. During the past winter the legislature enacted a more elaborate juvenile court law. The new law has made practically no change in the working of our system, except to give us much needed relief in the way of paid assistants. A house of detention is provided for. The jail for children under 14 is abolished. To reform a child by starting with putting it in jail is like trying to cure it of illness by first depositing it upon the city garbage dump. An experienced jail official once declared that city jails for children were toboggan slides straight into hell. The juvenile court in Denver has fought the jail system for two years, and succeeded in abolishing it entirely for children as formerly conducted. The detention house will be conducted by a superintendent and matron, who shall be man and wife, and competent to keep all the branches

of the grammar school. When a child is arrested, the juvenile court may order its incarceration in the detention house. It must be kept at its desk during the day, just as in the school room, at some useful employment. At night the superintendent must sleep in the same dormitory with the boys, and the matron with the girls. It is only in this way that the hideous vices learned by children in jails, and the contaminating influences to which they are subjected can be eliminated. We cannot be too careful in dealing with a child needing correction, and the old methods of subjecting it to the brutalizing effects of jail incarcerations will soon be, in my opinion, a relic of the past, classed among other relics of barbarism. We have had very little trouble in obtaining attendance at court by children and parents of children, who formerly were subjected to incarceration, by merely notifying them of the time and place when their presence was required.

The most important addition made during the past winter to our juvenile law is an act declaring that all parents, guardians, or other persons by any act or in any manner causing, encouraging, or contributing to the delinquency of any child, as defined by the statutes of the state, shall be guilty of a misdemeanor, and punished by a fine, not to exceed one thousand dollars, or imprisonment not to exceed one year, or both. Our former act only permitted the punishment of parents by a fine or imprisonment while they were responsible for the habitual truancy of their children. The present act makes not only parents, but all other persons responsible either for the truancy or delinquincy of the child. The result is we are holding parents to a rigid accountability for the faults of their children. Out of over 100 parents brought into our juvenile court last year for the truancy of their children, less than five per cent. of such children failed to become regular school attendants. The parents were fined, and sentence suspended while the law was complied with.

To illustrate how the law may operate to reach those who are really responsible for the faults of children, I might instance a case with which you are all familiar. The law declares that any child who purchases liquor, or who even enters or visits a

saloon, shall be deemed a delinquent child. Under our juvenile law, we would not only bring in the child as a delinquent, but the father who sent the child to the saloon, and the saloon keeper, who gave the child the liquor, would be prosecuted for contributing to the delinquency of that child. The wholesome effect of the law is already being realized. The evidence in any case against the child for delinquency cannot be used in any other proceeding against the child at any time.

The most effective factor of the juvenile court of Denver has been what is known as the "Report System." Something over two years ago, we established a rule requiring all children found guilty of disorderly conduct to report to the court once every two weeks, with a statement from the teacher detailing the school attendance and conduct of the child. By arrangement with the schools of Denver, a perfect understanding is had between the court and the schools as to the method of making out these reports, so that the court is enabled to tell at a glance the record of the child in school. The truancy or probation officer makes periodical visits to the neighborhood, and ascertains, as far as possible, the conduct of the child in the home. In this way, we are enabled to keep up with the record of the probationer. There are now an average of 250 boys reporting to the juvenile court at every session thereof, on every Saturday morning, at nine o'clock. Boys who are working report Saturday evening, with statements from their employers, and very often mere voluntary accounts of their conduct.

As a result of the probation system, during the first two years of the juvenile court 554 children, of whom 39 were girls, were found guilty of disorderly conduct, and placed on probation, being required to report in the manner stated. These children had committed various offences, which, if committed by an adult, would have been burglary, larceny, gambling, railroad depredations, forgery, and petty offences, embracing a number of cases for truancy. There were returned to the court, during the entire period of two years, of these 554 children, for renewed offences of such a character as to require their commitment to the Industrial School, just 31 boys, and a number of these were returned because of the hopeless lack of home surround-

ings, or an environment to aid in their reformation. We therefore, have, in two years all but five and five-tenths per cent. of 554 children found guilty of mostly serious offences, giving unusual and unexpected satisfaction under the probation system. It is true that during this period there were committed, at the time of trial, without being placed upon probation, about 40 children out of 715 brought before the court for delinquency. Yet nearly all of this number were committed because of lack of home conditions and environments, which in the opinion of the court, would justify their being submitted to the probation system. In other words, such children were both dependent and delinquent. The fact remains, however, that out of 715 children brought into the juvenile court in Denver, in two years, it became necessary to commit to the State Industrial School only a little more than ten per cent. We consider this a very gratifying record over the method of dealing with children in the criminal court of Denver in former years, when at least 75 per cent. of the children tried were committed to institutions. The saving in expense in proportion to the number of trials and commitments made, has exceeded $100,000. This is demonstrated in detail in the first report of the court. The governor of the state in his recent inaugural address declared that in eighteen months the juvenile court of Denver had saved the state and county $88,000.

As a result of the methods of assistance, encouragement, and help, with such firmness as is necessary to enforce proper discipline, over 150 boys have come voluntarily into the juvenile court during the past two years. These boys are what we term "Voluntary Delinquents." They have been brought to the court principally by other boys who have been proceeded against in court. Many of them have come voluntarily to myself, and stated that they desired to be placed upon the probation list because of some bad habits to which they had become addicted, and wanted to be assisted to employment and expressed a desire to correct their evil tendencies. It may be said, however, that the effect of requiring some 200 boys to appear in court once every two weeks, gives the court opportunities not otherwise, as a rule, acquired. Once each month we have what is known as a Saturday morning talk, in which some subject or topic of an

appropriate character is taken up and discussed. Again, it is my custom very frequently, to take boys into my chambers, and through confidential and companionable talks (being very much of a boy myself, understanding and appreciating their troubles and difficulties) get into their lives, find out who their companions are, with the result very frequently that a number of boys, not brought into court at all, are either implicated in their troubles or committing like offences.

The result of this system has been to encourage boys to assist the court not only in helping them, but in helping other boys who are disposed to evil ways. Let me illustrate the idea with a few cases in point: One evening five boys came to my chambers at the court house to see me. I had never seen but one of the boys before. This particular boy was what we might class as a "street boy," in fact, originally a very difficult and dangerous case. He said to me, "Judge, I told dese kids that they was sure to get caught by the cop for swipin' wheels, and we's been talkin' it over, and just concluded that the best thing to do was to come up here and snitch up. I told de kids dey would git a square deal." I soon became acquainted with these boys, although I was amused at first, to notice the apparent fear or trepidation, mixed with doubt and misgivings, upon the countenances of the four new ones. They were not yet satisfied that the assurances of their friend were as safe as represented. We were not long in becoming fast friends, however, and those boys, in a free and easy fashion, gave me the history of their pilferings, which disclosed that I had upon my hands a very serious case. The result was a free, easy, and friendly talk which did not involve either preaching, cross words, or threats. I just talked with those boys as though I was one of them, a companion and a friend in trouble, and advising the best way out, and the best way to keep out for all time. Four of those boys to this day are voluntary probationers. They have never even been charged or tried for any offence, although they had thirteen stolen bicycles to their credit, or rather discredit. I personally investigated at the police station, and found complaints that fitted exactly the number they had admitted. The wheels had been changed and shifted around, and either sold or destroyed. I

remember telling this incident to a police officer, a good man at heart, and he did not exactly agree with me in my method of treating this case. He thought the boys should have been arrested, and an effort made to return the wheels. This was very impracticable under the circumstances. I told him that I thought more of the boys than I did of the wheels; that I believed there was even a greater duty to save those boys than to save the bicycles, notwithstanding I respected the rights of the owners. I haven't a particle of doubt that the result of that incident was to save many citizens' property which would otherwise have been stolen. I have no doubt that but for that incident, the police would never in any event have recovered a particle of that property. I therefore justify my treatment of that case. I have been entirely satisfied with the result. For over a year these boys have been reporting to me on an average once every two weeks. It is true I have had occasion to assist some of them to different positions of employment. Yet, during that time, I am sure their lives have been entirely free from thefts or other serious improprieties. Had any of these boys shown a disposition to return to their former bad habits, it was thoroughly understood between us that I retained the privilege to have them charged with the offence they had voluntarily confessed.

Oscar C. had been repeatedly arrested by the police before he was ever brought to a juvenile court. He was regarded as a hopeless case, having also served a term at the Industrial School. We obtained a position for Oscar which he promptly lost because of incompetency; but we did not lose him. He was braced up and put to work at another place with much encouragement and urging. He managed to stick satisfactorily, and we were rewarded months later with the highest commendation by his employer. One night Oscar came to see me, apparently to show off his new clothes, the result of his month's wages, and to please me as well as himself, with a good report. He had with him another boy. Of course he was welcomed and inquired about in the most friendly way. I soon learned that Harvey was an old chum of Oscar's. "Judge," said Harvey, "will you help me get a job at the Cement Works?" Of course I volunteered any assistance in my power, and I suggested, "Harvey, we are just

as ready to help a boy here who has not been in trouble, as we are one who has been." "Oh," said he, "I might as well be honest; the only difference between Oscar and me is that Oscar got caught and I didn't." The boy disclosed to me that he had committed a number of thefts, and had been deterred on one occasion by a remark from Oscar that he "wasn't going to steal any more, because it wouldn't be square with the Judge." Of course Harvey is on the Volunteer Delinquent list.

The great number of voluntary delinquents have not committed any serious offence. The boys are encouraged not only to obey the law, but impressed with the idea that the friendship, aid and assistance of the court and its officers, demand in return only loyalty, friendship, and assistance to the court. If we are to have this, it means that they must obey the law, and bring good reports from their teachers, parents and employers.

While the probation system is not without its failures the results by this method of treatment, are gratifying, and satisfactory, even beyond expectation. We endeavor to interest every one of these boys in the methods of the juvenile court, its object, its purpose, and impress upon them that the success of such methods depends upon their cordial, earnest, and sincere cooperation.

Recently a complaint was made against a boy in the juvenile court in which he was charged with a rather serious offense. I was satisfied after an investigation, that the accusation was unjust; but, as is often the case, the result of a suspicion aroused by the fact merely that the boy had been before the court, and, finding no one else upon whom guilt could be fastened, it was natural that he should be suspected. I immediately sent for this boy, and he satisfied me at once that he was entirely innocent of the charge. The little fellow said to me, rather tearfully, "Well, Judge, I am awful glad they didn't go and arrest me, because then the cops would have had a laugh on us, and said 'This juvenile court business is all nonsense, because here is that 'blanked' kid who the Judge let off, gone and swiped something again,' and then, Judge," said he, "they would have thought they had the best of us, wouldn't they?" Now, when this boy was in jail, a policeman who believed rather in jail sentences than en-

couragement, and assistance of the proper kind, and with the proper firmness, had told the boy that this juvenile court the Judge was running up there was all "blanked" nonsense. That boy had lied time and again to the policeman. He had lied under all kinds of threats, revilings and cursings, according to his own story, while incarcerated in jail, and charged by the officers with a number of offenses, some of which he had committed, but which he entirely forgot in his rebellion at those charges made against him, and insisted upon by the police, but of which, as a matter of fact, he was entirely innocent.

Recently in Denver certain prominent merchants were greatly annoyed by the profanity of boys who congregated in a certain alley of an evening newspaper. Much complaint was also made about the petty gambling and other offenses of these boys, most of them newsboys. A number of individual boys, charged with such offenses, have been brought into the juvenile court. In every case they have reformed their habits to the entire satisfaction of the officers of the court. A friend of mine told me that he had overheard one of these street boys deliver himself of the following to a new boy in court: "Now, look-a-here, John, if you knows what is good fur you, you'll stay by de Judge. He's square, he is, wid de kids, and de kids has got to be square wid him, and de first kid dat goes back on him is going to git smashed, see?" This boy was one of the number reporting to the juvenile court, who came to me voluntarily recently and delivered himself of the following advice: "Now, Judge, dare ain't no use tryin' to git dem cops to stop dese kids shootin' craps, swipin' tings, and raising h——. De cops can't do it. De kids is too sharp for 'em. De only way you can ever git it stopped is to git the gang up here and tell the push you want it done, and dere ain't a kid among 'em, in my opinion, dat won't go down de line wid you. Anyway, de'll do more to make de kids stop dere swearin' and shootin' craps and swipin' fruit, dan all de cops in town." I call that loyalty to the court. I call it co-operation. We haven't organized the anti-crap society yet, but the boys on the street are anxiously looking forward to it, and a number of boys have come to my chambers to tell me, "not to boder wid de cops, that de kids is gitting ready to stop crap shootin, if you want it

done." It is as natural for street boys to gamble as it is for them to eat, and I am not entirely sanguine of the success of the anti-crap society; yet, I am sure that my counsellor is entirely right, "that de kids can do more to stop crap shooting than all the cops on the force."

I have had many boys tell me not to worry about them getting me into trouble. This sentiment is the result of frequent semi-confidential, companionable talks with boys, generally in my chambers around my table. They are thoroughly alive to the fact that if I keep them out of the Industrial School because of their promises, it is necessary that they must be square with me, or the whole juvenile court business is liable to go to smash, for, as I have often said, "Now, fellows, look here, if I keep you all out of Golden (this is the town where the Industrial School is located), and you go and swipe something again, why what will folks say? Why, they will just say, 'That fool judge up there ought to have sent that kid up. If he had, he wouldn't have swiped anything, and made other people a lot of trouble.'" Now, it is my custom to say, "Kids, we are all in the same boat, and if anybody swipes anything again, I am going to get fits, and the first thing you know, you will be getting a new judge up here that will hike you all up." (A little boy's slang, judiciously and wisely used at the psychological moment, has a powerful effect, and does more to reach the boy heart than you can well imagine. I do not believe, if used with discretion, it has a bad effect.) The response from boys often is, "Now, Judge, I will tell you, I am going to stay with you; all I want you to do is to give me a fair show, and if I don't stay with you, then I think you ought to send me up." As a result of this practice nearly every probationer committed imposes his own sentence, and some have gone to the Industrial School alone and unattended.

The policeman is the boys' natural enemy. An amusing feature about our work in the juvenile court is that the boys, especially what might be termed the street boys, have a notion that the police are opposed to the juvenile court, and are in favor of putting all the kids in jail. They also think that the police department has a joke on the court every time a boy on probation

is caught for a new offense. The result is they have a particular pride in fooling the police and in staying with the court.

I like to tell the story about little Harry, who, because of the fact he was probably one of the worst specimens I ever had to deal with, illustrates the point better than possibly a great many other cases of a similar character treated in the same way. I had sentenced Harry to the Industrial School at the solicitation of the police officials, the principal of the school, and his own mother, who I knew was heart-broken and despaired of his redemption. He had been termed by the police a "smooth little thief." I suppose, from the harsher standard of the criminal law, he fully deserved the appellation. Something about the boy rather appealed to me, however, and, as I have often done, I went to the jail myself after I had started him on the road to what is commonly termed the "Reform School," and had the officer put me in the cell with the boy. I sat down by his side and told him that now we were both in jail, and if I let him go and he ever stole again I should certainly feel that I ought to be put back in the same cell with him. "For," said I, "if you go to the Industrial School, as you have started, you will certainly not have a chance to steal, and perhaps you will become a good boy. But, if I let you go, and you steal again, then I am responsible even more than you. Now, Harry," said I, "if I protect you, are you going to protect me? Don't you know that I couldn't hold my job very long if I permitted thieves to run loose on the community?" Harry saw the point at once. With tears in his eyes this thirteen-year-old boy stood up like a man and said, so sincerely and earnestly for a boy of his age, that he would never get me into any trouble, that I, almost tearfully, accepted his protection. I rang for the jailor and through the clatter of the iron gates, the bolts and bars, walked out of that jail with that boy and took him to his mother. He went to school regularly. He sold his papers in the afternoon, and would frequently come to me during the week, with a face full of gladness, to tell me how well he was doing, and how ably he was protecting me. He was also fully aware of the protection I was affording him, in keeping him out of the Industrial School, which to that boy was as much of a horror as the penitentiary is to a man. He was

equally aware of the importance to his own welfare and future that he should not steal again, that he should obey the school law and avoid playing "hookey" as he would the plague. For over a year little Harry brought excellent reports every two weeks. Recently he moved to a distant city in the west, with nearly two years added to his experience since the time we sat in the cell together, and only last week I received from both his mother and him, letters full of love and gratitude for what we had accomplished for that boy. Some time after he had returned to school, his mother came to me and said, "Judge, I never quite understood why my boy is such a splendid little fellow. You know he used to steal and lie, and it was impossible for me to keep him in school. I said to him the other day, "Harry, how is it you were so good for the Judge, and you wouldn't be good for me?' He looked up into my face and said smilingly, 'Well, Ma, you see it's this way, if I gits bad agin the Judge, he will lose his job, and you see he is my friend, and I've got to stay with him, because he stays with me, and I ain't going to steal no more.'" It is fairly certain that this boy would have been a criminal and no doubt some day an inmate of a penitentiary, a disgrace to himself, and a sorrow to a broken-hearted mother. How many Harrys are there in the penitentiary to-day who if taken at the inception of criminality in childhood or youth might have been citizens honored and respected and a credit to the state? Yet how often we defer this important work until character has become as hard as adamant, incapable of impression.

Of course a juvenile court system, while under any average circumstance, is bound to be a step in advance of the old methods of the criminal law in dealing with children, yet its permanent and more complete success depends upon the individuals to whom its execution is entrusted. We have heard a great deal about probation officers. Upon the character, tact, skill and intelligence of the judge and his assistants, the probation officers, largely depends the success of the court. Without personal touch, influence, patience, encouragement of the child, and attempt to arouse all the nobler and better impulses, and subdue and suppress those discords of the soul, complete success is not likely to be attained. The law itself is of small importance compared to

these elements. There is no higher or more important position of a public character in the community than that of a probation officer unless it be the judge of the juvenile court. Perhaps this might illy come from one occupying that position, yet I have no apology to make for the statement. I am sure the statement can be appreciated by few more than by one who has occupied so important a position. As this work progresses and its wonderful results are constantly observed, the force of the statement impresses itself more and more upon the mind of the judge of the juvenile court. His position in the community, while somewhat new and unique, is nevertheless one of tremendous importance. Judge Tuthill, of Chicago, a distinguished pioneer among the judges of juvenile courts, after I believe an experience of over twenty years upon the bench in Cook County, has repeatedly declared that he considered his work as Judge of the juvenile court of Cook County the most important work he had ever performed. He assures us it is the most beneficial service to the community he has ever been able to render. I have no doubt that in importance to the community, not only for the present, but for future generations, it does exceed that of all his long, honorable and noble service upon the bench. One of his distinguished associates has also declared that the work of the juvenile court has done more, in the brief period of its existence, to prevent crime, than all the criminal courts of Chicago have done in twenty years.

Let me illustrate this: Recently a young man of twenty-two held up a saloon in the city of Denver, and deliberately shot down the policeman who attempted to arrest him. That young man's wife came to me, with tears in her eyes, regarding that case. I know something about the hisory of that boy. Seven years ago he was in the police court of the city of Denver. There was no juvenile court, no probation system. I have very little doubt that that young man was just such a boy as little Harry, whom I have described, full of boyish energy, misdirected and misguided into evil channels, and had he only been brought into a juvenile court, under the care and loving guidance of probation officers, that robbery would never have been committed, that policeman would never have been shot down, there would

have been fewer widows and fewer orphans, and the state would not have been called upon to contribute several hundred dollars annually to support that man for the next twenty years in the penitentiary.

The boys of to-day are the men of to-morrow. Why should we not deal gently and kindly with them? The young man whom I have just mentioned, was in youth, given the name of "Garfield," in honor of the martyred president who had just then expired by the assassin's bullet, and it was this same martyred Garfield who said, "I have more respect for boys than I have for men, because we generally know what a man is, but only God knows what a boy may be."

Let me illustrate again the difference between the old method and the new of reforming our juvenile delinquents. Harry H., six years ago was a little boy of eleven, full of deviltment and mischief that represented a little spirit that had within it possibilities for good or evil. A thousand things in that boy's life over which he had no control may have been responsible for the direction or misdirection of that spirit. One of these things was a natural desire to make a kite. He must have the kite sticks, and a knife wherewith to cut the sticks. Child-like, he asked a very ignorant and half brutal father for the knife. He was met with a curse and a blow. He was told to get the knife the best way he could. To his childish mind his father was the sum and substance of authority. He saw the barbers in the shop using sharp knives. One night he entered that shop and took therefrom a razor with which to cut things. There was a breaking, an entering, and a taking. In the eyes of the law he was a burglar. In my eyes and in yours, he was a misdirected, misguided child. No more a burglar than you or I. Yet, the harsh machinery of the criminal law took that child into the criminal court, and under a charge of common burglary, he was sentenced to jail and served his time. Then followed a career of similar offences, gradually drifting to a more serious character. He was hunted by the police, arrested, sent to the Industrial School, returned to his former occupation of stealing; then hunted like a dog by police and detectives, lain in wait for in the night, and finally shot at like a wild animal in the mad efforts of the police

to catch a desperate burglar of the age of sixteen. He was then brought to the juvenile court, a wrecked, distorted image. Now, I ask you who is responsible for this creature, bright and alert as a thief, already well progressed in the hardening process of soul and conscience? I say, the State. I say, almost anyone except that child. I once asked this boy, after he had been months on probation in the juvenile court, how long it took to try him the first time. "Oh," said he, "the guy with the whiskers what sat up on the high bench, looked over to the cop, and the cop says to him, 'this is a very bad kid; he went into Smith's barber shop and took two razors, and he admits it, yer Honor,' and what does the guy do, but hikes me right off to Golden before I had a chance to say a word."

Was that fair? Was that justice? Will the State ever make good citizens out of evil-disposed children by any such methods? Isn't a boy worth saving? Is citizenship worth anything? I ask you if more care and consideration are not given live stock than children unfortunately situated? Is there any work that can more justly engage our attention than the saving of these boys and girls? And the girls are more important than the boys. Suppose that boy, instead of being before the court, had fallen from the river bank, and the same officers of the law had observed the fall. Would there not have been an opportunity for heroism? and is there even one who was instrumental in his incarceration who would not have been ready to perform the act of a hero to save the life of the child? What is life worth if soul and spirit are to be warped and stunted and neglected in childhood when it is plastic, when it is capable of being played upon as the strings of a harp, when the skilled artist can elecit therefrom either harmony or discord? It has been said that the art of handling marble is nothing compared to the art of handling men, and skill in evoking melody from the harp is less than nothing compared to skill in allaying discords in the soul and calling out its noblest impulses, its most energetic forces. The business of life is the mastery of the art of living smoothly and justly with one's fellows, and the acquisition of skill in calling out the best qualities of those about us. Now, this boy is only one of thousands. He is one of hundreds in my own experience.

Do you know what that boy cost the state of Colorado? Do you know what a similar boy cost the state of Georgia? I can tell you in the first case to one cent. I went to the police records and the records of the criminal court, and I figured up in court costs, jury fees, jailor's fees, mileage, attorneys for the defense for poor person, keep in jail, and at the Industrial School, the total sum of $1,036.76. I figured up a similar case, which I believe amounted to $839. Do you know what it has cost the people of the state of Colorado to not only make a good boy of the $800 specimen, but to place him in the navy of the United States as a promising youth and a useful citizen? It has cost just $11.99. The same sum has been expended for this thousand dollar distortion up to the present time after nine months on probation, with an entirely satisfactory record, excepting possibly one offense of no serious consequence considering the case. But, my friends, it takes patience.

I once heard Graham Taylor, of Chicago, tell a story of patience. It was the case of a young man whom he had sought to save, and he did not propose to lose him. You remember the injunction of the Divine Master:

"How think ye? If a man have an hundred sheep, and one of them be gone astray, doth he not leave the ninety-and-nine, and goeth into the mountains, and seeketh that which is gone astray?

"And if so be that he find it, verily I say unto you, he rejoiceth more of that sheep than of the ninety and nine which went not astray."

The young man whom Graham Taylor tried to save had fallen twenty times, but he had reached out the helping hand, had thrown out the life line time after time, until he at last got him firmly and solidly planted, as it were, on the rock of virtue and truth from which he never slipped again. Robert, one of my own boys, was denounced by an officer. He was recommended for commitment. I secured Robert employment. In three days he had a fuss with the foreman and "flew out." We got him back, secured permission for him to return to work. In three weeks

another row, and out he went. The police laughed. But Robert was recovered. Another stiffening, earnest talk, encouraging words, impressing him with the idea that he was a good boy, had good stuff in him, and that he would bring it out, until Robert believed it himself. He had been believing in himself now for more than eighteen months, for he still holds that same job, and has held it without a break for this period, and has the reputation of being one of the best boys who ever worked for a man who has had twenty years' experience in juvenile labor. But, my friends, it took patience.

Sometimes there seems to be and is a limit to such patience, and sometimes there are failures. But the failures are indeed comparatively few. The point is that there would be infinitely more failures under the old system. No system is perfect. No man is perfect. Perfection is not in this world. We must follow that method from whence come the best results. Don't try to handle all boys alike. Because, while boys in the embryo and originally may be all alike, they are entirely different creatures, depending upon training, home, and environment. Let me illustrate: Two boys were about to run away. It is against the rule of the juvenile court for probationers to leave the city without the consultation of the court. They were from different parts of the city and happened to be reported about the same time. One of these boys lived in the best neighborhood in the city, the product of a good, average home. He knew what it was to obey. He knew what it was to respect authority. He had never been illy treated. I sent for him and told him firmly but kindly, he must not run away. He knew well enough what the consequences would be. He obeyed. I sent for the other boy and I said, "Henry, I understand you are going on the bum?" He admitted it. Now this boy had the "moving-about fever." He had been an habitual bum for three years before he came into the juvenile court. He had been kicked and cuffed about in his home. He had no respect for parents, no respect for authority. He had never learned what it was to obey. He was an outlaw. I said: "My boy, I think you are making a great mistake to go away, but I just

want to tell you that whenever you get ready to go I want you to come and tell me, because I want you to write to me while you are away. If you get into any trouble perhaps I can help you out. I want to ask you to promise me that you will not steal, and while it is wrong to beg, it is worse to steal, and you can do the lesser evil if you are driven to desperate straits." Thus I continued in a free and easy, kindly talk with that boy. I took him with me to dinner, shook hands with him, and wished him good-bye, as though I hadn't a particle of objection to his going, but the deepest concern for his welfare on his journey. The last time that boy had been on the bum he had traveled five thousand miles and been away for six months, living by thefts of a serious character. He had free transportation all over this country. He could go to Chicago on schedule time, and he could tell you which road was easy and which was not. I shook hands with Henry on Saturday evening. On Monday morning he came to my chambers with the information that he had decided, after thinking it over, that he would hold on to the job we had secured for him, and he didn't think he would ever go on a bum again. Of course I won. I might have lost by this method. I was sure to lose had I pursued the method in the first case.

I will not stop to expatiate upon the lessons to be learned from these two cases. One question: Had any living man a right to handle those two cases, under such circumstances, involving possibly the whole career of at least one of those children, without knowing what he was doing? Could any living man have known what he was doing, unless he knew those boys? Could he have known those boys unless he knew their homes, their surroundings, their environment, their past, in fact, their inmost secret lives? I know that off and on in the course of the first three months that the more difficult boy referred to was in juvenile court, I spent over twenty solid hours getting acquainted with him. Isn't it worth while? Could I render a better service to the State? I believe we have nipped a criminal in the bud. I believe we have saved to the state of Colorado a good citizen.

Once, in the midst of an important law suit, little Maurice, who had been considered rather a hopeless rascal, poked his head in the court room and was promptly "shooed" out by the bailiff. We were in the midst of an important trial, involving the construction of a law upon which depended the disposition of a million dollars worth of property. I told the bailiff to let that boy come in, he was one of my friends. He came up to the bench while I suspended the trial for three minutes. I said, "Maurice, what can I do for you?" He said, "Well, judge, it's dis way; I's been a sellin' papers down by the Mining Exchange corner for a year and I's always hopped on the cars when I feeled like it, and now dey's got a new guy down there for a cop; he's one of dese fly bulls dat tinks he owns de town and won't let me git on de cars, and I's been losing fifty cents a day for a week. "Well," I said, "Maurice, what can I do about it?" He read the papers as well as sold them, and he promptly replied, "Well, what I want you to do is to give me one of these here injunctions against this cop." Maurice got the injunction in the shape of a kindly note to the policeman, stating that he was a ward of the court, and it was our special desire that he be allowed to "hop" the cars all he pleased. The next report day Maurice came up beaming. "Well," said I, "Maurice, how did the injunction work?" "Oh, it worked fine," he replied. "He liked to dropped dead when he read it. He's trying to be my friend now. He tinks I've got a pull with de court." Maurice to-day, after two years, is a splendid boy.

Boys have feelings. They like to have friends. There isn't much use to try to arouse pride unless there be someone whom they want to please and in pleasing will in turn be pleased. If they have no friends, the first thing to do is to supply the friend, and the pride, in most cases, will come out. If they have the wrong kind of friends, it is a good thing to quietly supply the right kind. Take the case of Micky. Before Micky got in the juvenile court one of the Denver papers had published his picture with a graphic account under the double leaded head-line, "The Worst Kid in Town." Micky had feelings. He made the paper so much trouble that they finally gave him a job. One unlucky day, however, as he himself explains it, he got "canned."

After he was placed on probation, he was arrested on a false suspicion, as he stated to me "Simply because the bull had to pinch somebody and he pinched me because he had been reading the 'Post'" (the offending newspaper). The result was a second article entitled "The Misfortunes of Micky," in which it was announced that he had been sent to the Reform School. Micky was simply the victim of a newspaper exaggeration, as other distinguished people have been before. He came to me in a great state of perturbation the next day, with the offending paper in his hand. He said "Judge just look at dat." I read rather surprisedly that I had committed Micky to the Industrial School. "Well," I said, "Charlie, this is very distressing." "Yes," he said, "I knowed it was a lie when I seed it, but," he said, the tears welling in his eyes, "dat ain't de worst of it." "Why," I said "there is nothing that can be worse than such a statement?" "Oh, yes, dere is," he said. Said I, "What can it possibly be?" Breaking down, crying, he whimpered out, "Deys done gone and put it on the sporting page, and all my friends will see it." Now, Micky's friends were among the sporting fraternity. If there was a prize fight on, before Micky got in the juvenile court — and the police would have you believe, even after — Micky was there if he had to go in through the roof. He is now a special probation officer in the juvenile court and very proud of his job. He can "keep tab" on more bad kids than the entire police force. He says himself that he has "done reformed long ago," and I am inclined to credit his statement.

Now, my friends, in closing, I want to say that in my opinion, the best way to reform a boy waywardly disposed is first to understand him. You have got to get inside of him and see things through his eyes, understand his motives, have sympathy and patience with his faults, just as far as you can, remembering that more can be accomplished through love than by any other method. But I would not have you misunderstand me. It has been well said that "love without justice is sentiment and weakness." We must be just. There is no justice without love and yet we can judge in the light of both forgetting not firmness and the right of others. We can not be just without the exercise of patience and a plentiful supply of those higher qualities of the

soul which must be brought to bear if we are to call out the noblest impulses and the highest and most energetic forces of a child. The juvenile court and the probation system, simply supply the machinery for doing this where heretofore such machinery was not permitted by the law. We pursued the blind, brutal, incongruous methods of recognizing a child as an irresponsible being in dealing with its dollars and cents, and denied it the right of contracting even while it was a minor, whereas when it came to offending against the law, when its moral welfare, its very soul was involved, we denied its irresponsibility and placed it upon the same plane and in the same category with an adult; and the child who through entirely different motives, or even granting, if you please, the same motive, would enter a grocery store for something to eat or your house for money to buy something to eat, was branded by the same terms or stigmatized with the same epithets as the burglar who enters your house in the night time with murder in his heart, and a pistol in his pocket.

One trouble is that we do not think. Victor Hugo did not suffer from this short-coming to which we are all more or less victims. Nearly one-hundred years ago a Paris newspaper contained an item, (as far as the principle is involved), seen in our city newspapers almost any day: A boy had been arrested, tried and incarcerated for stealing a loaf of bread. How many thousands of readers glanced over that item without another thought. Yet it was the suggestion to one who did think for a story of life that thrilled the heart of the world. It is all right to sympathize with Jean Valjean. And yet no code of ethics or morals will justify, or ought to justify what he did.

Our revulsion at his punishment is what causes us in our profound pity and sympathy to even justify his act. It is, inherently, a mistake to ever justify the unlawful satisfaction of any desire. We may very properly even excuse and sympathize with an unfortunate. This is entirely different from justification. When you try to justify an unlawful act you are treading on dangerous ground, and while apparently proper in an individual case it would be sowing the seeds from which in the end we should reap the fruits of bitterness. The trouble in Jean Valjean's case was that justice was not done. It is as natural for a boy or girl

to want joy and fun as it is to be hungry. It is just as important to satisfy one as the other. If either is satisfied unlawfully, the act must be corrected.

There should have been justice to the boy who stole. There should have been justice to the man who, in the sweat of his brow, and by his own labor, had produced that loaf of bread. Suppose he had forty loaves as the result of a day's work, and forty Jean Valjean's had appeared upon the scene. He may have had hungry children of his own to feed. The judge was no better or worse than the people or the system under which he lived and acted. The rights and duties of each were not adjusted to each other. There was neither harmony nor justice. Jean Valjean should have been corrected, but corrected with the love and tenderness of our Saviour, as He would have corrected him. Would He have told Jean it was right to steal that bread? No. The Master would have said: "Thou shalt not steal." He would have forgiven him. He would have assisted him, so that he could accomplish lawfully what he had done unlawfully. That is what the juvenile court would do.

REFORMING DELINQUENT CHILDREN.

BY J. J. KELSO, TORONTO.

Few subjects are more important and none can more worthily occupy our attention than the proper care of neglected and dependent children, especially those who through petty delinquencies are in danger of drifting permanently into the criminal class. The destiny of children is controlled by early training and environment, and life with all its possibilities may be made or unmade by the circumstances surrounding the boy or girl when he or she is merging into manhood or womanhood. The superintendent of our Industrial School said not long ago that he very seldom received a thoroughly bad boy. There were mischievous boys and boys who from lack of proper advantages or from extra ebullition of spirits had got off the right track, but there was rarely a case where the boy was sufficiently bad to be classed

as in any degree hopeless or incorrigible—and this has been my own experience. Children look to the future with eagerness and hope, and they are ready to respond to any call upon their faith or activity. Taken in the right way and by the right persons, the boy or girl who has gone astray, broken the law or given evidence of waywardness, can, if separated from hurtful environment and association, be reformed, or at least given an impetus toward reformation, almost instantaneously and withou the necessity for years of special training and drilling in an institution. There is such a thing as an instantaneous awakening of the soul to the realization of higher and better things by the magnetic influence of one soul reacting upon another. If we earnestly desire the reformation of a child, and let the child feel and know that we have such a desire, the response will in almost every instance be prompt and sincere.

To illustrate what I mean let me tell the following incident: Years ago when I first entered upon philanthropic work I was conducting a Fresh Air excursion on the lake for some two or three hundred neglected children. There was one girl about fourteen years of age who had given a great deal of trouble; she was bold, defiant, profane and quarrelsome, and at last after a serious dispute with two or three of the workers ,a request was made to me to have her put off the boat before it started. The girl, knowing that an appeal was being made, stood a short way off awaiting the decision with a hard, sullen look on her face. After hearing the complaints I told the ladies I wished to make an experiment and asked them to watch the result. I then went over to the girl and said to her: "Mary, we have just been talking about you, and we have decided that you are getting so big now that we will make you a member of the committee. See," I continued, "here is a badge which will show that you are one of the managers, and I will pin it on your dress." At first she could hardly grasp the new idea, but in a few minutes large tears came to her eyes and rolled down her cheeks. Without taking any notice of this, she was given a special work to do, namely, to distribute milk to the younger children, taking care that they were all served before the older boys and girls. This task she took hold of with zeal, and for the remainder of the

day was a model of propriety. As the boat neared the wharf in the evening she came up with a beaming face, and, after being complimented on her good work, she said: "Do you know, Mr. Kelso, I did not get a drop of milk myself, although I was thirsty." "Well now," I replied, "I am glad of that." Looking up with surprise she wanted to know why I should be glad, and I explained I was glad because her forgetting herself showed that she was so busy helping the children that she had no time to think of her own needs. "And now, tell me," I said, "were you not happy doing that work to-day?" and she replied very heartily, "Yes, I never was so happy in my life before."

Finding this policy work so well with this particular girl, I tried the same plan with four or five large boys, who were causing much annoyance, appointing them caretakers of the supplies, with the result that they not only gave no further trouble, but were a decided help in many ways. Froebel's system of educating the child through his activities is the true solution for the waywardness of youth, and it will be found that success in child-saving work can be attained, and can only be attained, by making the children active agents in their own reformation. Show the children that you respect and trust them, and provide them with useful employment, especially giving them, where possible, work to do for others.

Some years later, when I accepted my present position as superintendent of neglected and dependent children of Ontario, an opportunity occurred for trying a simple plan. Word was sent me from a town, some fifty or sixty miles away, that there was a neglected boy, who had been arrested several times and sent to gaol, and that he should really be committed to the Industrial School, but the local authorities opposed this, because unwilling to pay for his maintenance. Finding that the boy had been driven to wrong-doing, as in the case of so many others, by defective home life, I requested that he be sent to me, and I would be responsible for his future. The boy came along in due time, closely guarded by a constable, whose parting remark when leaving the boy in the office was, "Better keep a sharp eye on him or he will get away from you." After waiting a few moments to allow the lad to collect his thoughts, I looked up

and said, "Well, Joe, what do you think is going to become of you now?" He replied with pathetic indifference, "The Reformatory, I guess." "No," I said, "not the reformatory, if I can do anything to keep you out of it;" and going over to him I said: "Joe, do you not think there is something better for you than the reformatory—don't you think if I will be your friend, and help you, that you can get along without either the gaol or the reformatory?" Then I explained exactly what I would do for him — that I would get him a boarding place, some good clothes, and after a time, when he was rested, would get him a home in the country, where the people would take a genuine interest in him. This was something new altogether, and more to his taste than his former treatment, and over his sullen countenance came that indefinable, indescribable glow of a soul awakening to high and noble aspirations. It happened that in the boarding home to which I sent him there was a girl about seventeen or eighteen, who was very sympathetic, and who found that Joe's feet were very sore from the constant friction of a pair of ill-fitting boots. She washed his feet and bound them up after getting him to promise that he would not try to walk for two or three days. This kindness completed his subjugation, and during the remainder of his stay he could not do enough to show his gratitude. In three or four weeks he went to a home in the country, and though now grown almost to manhood he has never been in any trouble, nor has he cost the community a dollar for his maintenance. Our whole attitude towards these children must be one of encouragement, showing them how good they may be rather than how bad they are. We must secure their good-will and co-operation in their own salvation, appealing to the soul, which exists in every child, however much he may have been neglected and mistrained. Institutional training which does not influence the spiritual nature may only serve to make a child more obdurate and expert in wrong-doing.

In the years that followed many other children were dealt with in the same way of drawing out their best instincts, and almost without exception they appreciated the confidence reposed in them and were extremely anxious to show themselves worthy of it. This is a class of work that has many trials and

much anxiety, for it cannot be done in any haphazard way, but the results are well worth it all, and if time permitted I could recite to you story after story of children who, if their original sentence, or contemplated sentence, to reform schools had been carried out would have aggregated two or three hundred years of confinement, and who by a different system have been provided for without ever seeing an institution, at almost nominal expense and to their own permanent benefit.

This leads me to speak of the injustice of hastily committing children to reform schools for trivial offences. I remember once being in the police station when a mother came before the magistrate to ask that a fair-haired, innocent-looking boy of eleven should be committed to the Industrial School, because he was not only very bad and disobedient but because he had actually beaten her on several occasions! Enquiry, however, revealed the fact that she was about to be married again and one of the conditions was that the boy should be got rid of. Last year a case came to my notice in which a father had his son arrested, sent to gaol and ultimately committed to the reformatory for five years as a vagrant, vicious lad. His mother was dead and his step-mother did not want him. That the boy was not so very vicious may be judged from the fact that he was a regular attendant at Sunday-school and his teacher regarded him as one of her best boys. Making enquiries concerning his absence she found him locked up in the gaol, where he had been taken on a warrant sworn out by his father. Second marriages mean much of misery for children of the first contract and they are a fruitful cause of the neglect and dependency of children that engages the attention of societies and institutions. Parents should not be lightly relieved of their responsibilities, but if the child is being so neglected and ill-treated as to make him a public charge or a menace to society, the solution is not a reform school, but a home in the true sense of the word, where he may receive free scope for his energy and something of kindness and affection.

There is a great lack of patience on the part of police officials with boys who have broken some of the numerous laws and ordinances that govern every well-regulated town. The re-

formatory is the easiest way to get rid of a troublesome lad, and often the spirit of revenge and punishment is given more weight than the consideration of the boy's future welfare. In the past hundreds of children have been hurried off to institutions who could have satisfactorily been tided over the danger point if only a different method had been pursued. I do not advocate by any means allowing such boys to go unmolested in their lawlessness, but the application of probation methods, such as procuring employment, transferring them to another home, or insisting upon parents exercising more control if they wish to retain the guardianship. Character cannot be developed so successfully in an institution as in the outside world, and like the forced plant that dies when exposed to the free air, the boy or girl who has been brought up in an institution is in great danger of falling when the institutional support is withdrawn. In too many instances also the children, after several years of careful training, are returned again to the degraded home surroundings from which they were rescued only to be dragged back by unworthy relatives to the misery and vice from which they were for a time delivered. The more popular a juvenile institution becomes the more dangerous it is, for it sets up a false standard, not only before slothful parents, but before municipal officers and magistrates who think they are doing the child a favor to commit him. Owing to their popularity some of the leading juvenile institutions in the United States have a rollcall of from 500 to 800 boys. In Ontario we aim to keep the instituion subordinate to the family home. No matter how earnest and zealous the superintendent may be he cannot avoid a certain routine in the institutional life that will have a deadening effect on the young people under his care. Even a child-saving society or charity organization, or any other kind of a philanthropic body, will gravitate toward a machine-like movement unless there is a frequent revival of interest and the constant introduction of fresh life and advanced methods. I can at this moment recall a very large and popular society the entire work of which is performed by two or three persons, while in the first year or two of its existence there were from fifty to seventy-five active volunteer participants. These have given up the work entirely, or have drifted into other enterprises, simply

because they gradually realized that there were paid officers to do the work and these did not desire much volunteer help. Officialism is the bane of any good movement and any philanthropic organization that fails to utilize the great moral forces of the community, that like a mighty Niagara are only waiting for the call to usefulness, is simply acting as a buffer between the helper and the helped and would be better out of the way.

The juvenile court and the probation law going hand in hand are engaging public attention everywhere just now, and with wonderful unanimity of opinion they have been accepted all over this continent as among the greatest agencies for good yet devised. The movement is good because it is natural. It aims to employ the volunteer worker, to elevate and improve the home without breaking it up, to place the homeless child in a family home, and in every other way possible to follow the simple rule of friendly and brotherly co-operation. Children cannot be forced into goodness any more than a baby can be forced to go to sleep. They have to be led by gentler methods and gradually taught by their reason to appreciate the good and avoid the evil. Children should always be praised when they perform any meritorious act or have striven to accomplish anything. To be complimented and praised encourages them to persevere, and incites them to still greater and better things. There has been too much of scolding and punishment instead of the encouraging word and the helping hand. A mother one day told her little boy that he was to play in the front yard and was not to go outside the gate. This little fellow saw no hardship in this until he went outside and beheld his little companions playing some distance off. He walked to the gate and looked wistfully at them, but came back and tried to amuse himself alone; three times he went to the gate with the tempation growing stronger each time. At last he could resist no longer and sped away to join his playfellows. On his return his mother called him in and said she would have to punish him for his disobedience, and explained to him that she had been sitting at the window and had seen him go to the gate two or three times and at last run off. The little fellow turned and said, "Moher, did you really see me go to he gate the first and the second and the third time?" "Yes," the

mother replied, "I did." "Well mother," he said, "why didn't you tap on the window and help a fellow out." Was there not a cutting rebuke in this for the mother who was more anxious to punish the child for wrong-doing than to tenderly and lovingly prevent him from getting into trouble, and is there not something that each one of us can learn from the incident that will aid us in our work for the children.

We are all the product of our environment and live the life that is shaped and moulded for us in our early years. The boys and girls of our wealthy and prominent citizens, as well as the children of the poor, are made out of the same material, and it depends on the moulding they receive in youth what they will become later on. The children of the rich make mistakes and often transgress the law, but there is always sufficient influence at hand to save them from the error of their way, while the children of the poor have but few friends to take their part, otherwise they, like the others, might live down their wrong-doing and with names untarnished attain to positions of usefulness and honor.

This is a work that is full of hopefulness, for it has to do with the beginning of things where well directed effort is almost certain of reward. It offers an unlimited field of pleasant and profitable employment to the volunteer workers who realize the possibilities of good in the saving and reclamation of unfortunate children, and it means to the community relief from the burden of pauperism and criminality that is the sure outcome of indifference toward neglected childhood. A noted tramp, who was spending his life in evil and idleness, was suddenly changed into a sober and industrious citizen at a lodging house meeting in England. When asked by his acquaintances the cause of his remarkable change, he replied, referring to Lord Shaftsbury: "He just put his hand on my shoulder and said, 'Jack we'll make a man of you yet.'" Back of those few words was the earnest yearning after a lost soul and the magnetism of sincerity that rarely fails, and as a result the whole current of a life was changed. With the same spirit animating us in child-saving effort failure need never be feared, and young lives will certainly blossom out into careers of usefulness and honor.

THE STREET BOY — WHO HE IS, AND WHAT TO DO WITH HIM.

BY MORNAY WILLIAMS, PRESIDENT OF NEW YORK JUVENILE ASYLUM.

A few words of explanation seem called for before entering upon the discussion of the topic assigned to me.

First, I feel that I ought to state that I have elected to present the subject in the form of an extemporaneous address advisedly, because the subject is one in which the spontaneity and vigor of the spoken word are of more value than the balanced expression and measured utterance of the written word. Second, I desire to assume all responsibility for the opinions expressed, as I do not wish to commit even my own associates on the Board of the New York Juvenile Asylum, which I have the honor to represent here to-day, to views the precise expression of which they have not heard.

With this explanatory preface, let me proceed at once to the discussion of the topic, "The Street Boy — Who he is, and what to do with him."

From the standpoint of the evolutionist, the street boy is the selected survival of the human animal at the point of his greatest gregariousness. He is a product of the city; indeed, he may be said to be *the* product of the city, though in intention he is but a by-product. I am not one who sees only evil in the great city. It is not by idle chance that the course of human events has so shaped itself that with increasing civilization there has ever been the increasing tendency towards the massing of population in certain circumscribed areas. Nor are the reasons for this massing together of men merely commercial reasons, nor industrial reasons, but, unfortunately, we have been too prone to treat the matter as if these were the sole reasons; and have, too often, scarcely been aware of the fact that beyond all other things the city is a man-factory, and that the street boy is the typical output of the factory — a by-product you may call him if you please, yet the most significant and essential product that issues from

that teeming hive of industry — the city. He is literally a product of his environment far more than of his heredity. As an inheritor his only estate is the blessing of inherited poverty, whose fabulous glories and opportunities have been rather over heralded in these later days. He is born to poverty, to unsanitary conditions, overcrowded rooms and scant fare, but, like the Arab steed, he has lived through the preliminary tests of ability to endure, and is the survivor of the infant mortality of the slum, and having survived infancy his environment takes hold of him and brings him face to face with three conditions which more than anything else determine his destiny until society in some form steps in and interferes. These conditions are motherlessness, overcrowding and the street.

It is one of the strange phenomena of life that, while, as the type of racial life advances, the period of infancy is prolonged until the human infant has become the most helpless of infants and the one most in need of maternal care, yet the effect of urban civilization is to diminish the period of maternal care and the degree of maternal solicitude. Not that there are no faithful mothers among the children of the poor; God be thanked, there are thousands, but there are other thousands who go down to untimely graves leaving the brood of little ones to the care of that most pathetic figure of the tenements, the "little mother," and there are, alas! hundreds in whom the moral dignity of motherhood has been effaced, though not the physical fact. Motherlessness, then, I should place first in order of the conditions that make the street boy, and in so far as the mother may be said to make the child's home, he is a homeless boy. But beyond this, and in many cases where the bond of motherhood is not absolutely broken, the street Arab is practically homeless because of overcrowding. A boy needs room, and room is more precious than life in many quarters of the great city, so the crowd in the tenement like the crowd on the street car presses the little fellow off and out. How can a young lad live in the four-decker tenement? He may sleep there, huddled in with a host of others, in circumstances of doubtful delicacy and indubitable dirt, but how can he live his boy life there? As a matter of fact he cannot, and he does not so live. Motherless and crowded out, he

introduces himself to the street, and there he finds his home, his school and his playground.

It is a wonderful place — the street — and the prince of it, he of the blood royal, is the gamin. The poets and the novelists are the seers of our day, and if you and I have not discovered the charm and the mystery of the street and its denizens, these modern prophets have. Listen to the cry of the children as Mrs. Browning utters it, or the deeper threnody of Thomas Hood's Bridge of Sighs; follow Oliver Twist through the purlieus of London, or sweep crossings with poor Joe, and learn what Dickens has to tell you of life; or cross the channel and watch Gavroche dart down the Paris Boulevards, if you wish to read the meaning of that riddle of the Sphinx, the modern city, as interpreted by Victor Hugo. But if you would know the problem for yourself, go out in the streets, the mean streets, aye, and the broad avenues too of any of our great cities and make yourself acquainted with the street boys. You will find young thieves, as innocent and as interesting as Oliver Twist, hunted animals, as weary and pitiful as Joe, and heroes of the street fight as gay and debonair as Gavroche himself.

There are two main types of the street boy presented to the student of child life through the law-and-order dragnet of society, the first of which is often, though not always, but the precursor of the second. The first type is physically small, lean, wiry and nervous, alert of eye and lithe of limb, a young nomad with not a few of the characteristics of the American Indian, somewhat callous to pain but fond of inflicting torture, revengeful with flashes of generosity, despising work manual or intellectual, and intolerant of control, content to starve one day if he may gorge another — in short a reversion to a very primitive type. This boy is lawless — a free companion of the street — but is not in any proper sense a criminal, and generally quite capable with proper training of being converted into a moral and upright citizen, but left alone or stupidly interfered with by state or philanthropic meddlers, he can easily be turned into a boy of the second type. This second type of boy is dull, embruted, cunning but not clever, hateful and hating others — a criminal in little. He may make his appearance on the street, as he occa-

sionally does in the country home, with all these evil propensities apparently ingrained, but in the vast majority of cases the street boy of this type has been developed from the lad first described by alternate interference and non-interference on the part of society through its police, and its charitable and reformatory agencies.

As we have seen, the street boy is naturally alert, and while uneducated from the standpoint of the pedagogue, has received a very complete education in the school of the street. The life of the street has entered his very soul; it is not only his playground — and a playground that is always open and always amusing — but it is also his home, generally a far more pleasing home than the inside room of the grimy tenement that is his legal residence. But beyond all this the street is his school. It is there that he has learned all the simple maxims of his code — that he who fights and runs away may live to fight another day, that the blunder of being caught with the goods on is far worse than the crime of stealing, that the blackest offence possible is "to squeal on a pal," and so on. These things with him are the rules of life, but society, represented to him most frequently in the shape of a policeman, steps in and forcibly assures him that something entirely outside of his code, the infraction of some ordinance or statute of which he never heard and for which he has no reverence, demands his commital and the deprivation of his liberty, in other words, his temporary banishment from home, and school and playground — from the street. He is puzzled and frightened, and outraged withal. What has he done that he should be thus handled? His answer to that question when the judge asks it in court is usually, "Didn't do nawthin'," and from his point of view it is true. Then the reformatory agency steps forward. The boy is sent to an asylum for five days, for a fortnight, for six months, a year, two years, as the case may be; or, if there be a juvenile court with probation officers, he is released on parole; but in either case, in the majority of instances, he goes back to the old environment at the expiration of his term, or if paroled, forthwith. The natural result follows; the old companionships, the old fascinations, the old temptations take

hold on him again. "It has happened unto them according to the true proverb, the dog is turned to his own vomit again and the sow that was washed to her wallowing in the mire." Nay, more, the interference, if it has not been permanently helpful, has probably been positively harmful, for the knowledge of good and evil, if the evil be wittingly chosen thereafter, is worse than simple ignorance of good; it constitutes the difference between lawlessness and maliciousness.

Viewed in this aspect society may be said to be directly responsible for not a little of criminal-making, and yet it would be wholly wrong to say that the institution, the juvenile court, the probation officer and the placing-out agency should have no part in reformatory work among street boys. Each of these agencies has a definite place and an honorable place when properly used in the work of developing the street boy into a good citizen.

The agency at which most criticism has been directed and which has often been made, quite unfairly, to bear the blame of failure, when failure has ensued, is the reform school; yet there is no more important work to be done than the work which can frequently be best done in such a school. The very first letter in the alphabet of righteousness is obedience. And the street boy must begin with the alphabet; in the learning of righteousness he is woefully illiterate. The absence of all restraint, the free comradeship of the street, is his undoing, but he may acquire the new learning best in a school, where firmness and gentleness are combined and where he has companionship of equals as well as the tuition of instructors. This element of companionship must never be overlooked; if it be true that evil companionships are a prime factor in ruined lives, it is none the less true that companionship, the comradeship of play and study and discipline, is an essential factor in education, and with the street boy especially the esprit de corps of a good school is potentially most effective. In such a school, preferably one on the cottage home plan, where the influence of family life may be thrown around him for at least part of his waking day, he can be taught the rudiments of a well regulated life. Perseverence can be developed, his natural aptitudes ascertained, and his capacity gauged,

before he is sent forth to begin the battle of life outside the school walls. If the natural love of companionship, which was the motive power of the street life, can be turned into enthusiasm for the school, and the love of a leader substituted for the clanship of the gang, much has been accomplished; more than one battle has been won by the slogan "Floreat Etona."

But the school is a means, not an end. In the school the fundamental rules of living, as well as of grammar and arithmetic, are taught, but the life lies outside the school limits. Where is the street boy, whom society has undertaken to reconstruct, to live? It is very well to reply, "In a home," but what home? His old place of residence, as we have seen, was not a home, and to send him back there in most instances, either before or after a modicum of schooling, is to place him again under the old influences and to subject him to the old temptations. If, for any reasons, legal or natural, lack of power in the committing magistrate or family ties, or other considerations, he is to be sent back, the best agency of helpfulness thus far discovered is, probably, the probation officer. The good probation officer in the role of friend and counsellor may accomplish much, but he cannot ward off the temptation; he is a new friend and the lad has many old acquaintances. It is wondrously easy in the crowded street to walk in the counsel of the ungodly, to stand in the way of sinners, to sit in the seat of the scornful. The best way to help the lad himself, especially when he has begun to feel the stirrings of a new ambition and the kindling fire of a new hope, is to find him a new home. Generally that home should be in the rural districts. What the street boy needs is the country. It is the law of equalization after all; the country youth longs for the city with its incessant and varied activities, and if he has had the proper home training he is more likely to succeed there than the city-bred youth; but the street boy needs the open air, the warm breath of nature on his cheek, the calm patience of her slow processes, the subtle teaching of the changing seasons, the new companionships of wild and tamed animals, and by them he grows into a well-rounded manhood.

But my time has expired and I must only take a moment to urge the need of more charity among the workers themselves for

the differences of work. The problem of the street boy is a great problem; in the main, it is even yet an unsolved problem, but the solution must be found, and it is for us to find it. Love must spell out what education has failed to find. Only by the charm of love can be found the way to the street boy's heart, only by it can we have union among ourselves. Let us not cavil at one another. The children's court has its place, it is the clearing house of grievances, and there should be one in every city. The probation officer has his place, he is the friend and counsellor of youth, he may even be the earthly ministrant correspondant to those angelic beings of whom the Savior spoke when He said, "Take heed that ye despise not one of these little ones; for I say unto you, that in heaven their angels do always behold the face of my Father which is in heaven." The reform school or the institution has its place, it is the nursery where the young plant, pallid for lack of sunshine, dwarfed and deformed for lack of room to grow, is tended and trained, fenced in by discipline and supported by rules, until transplantation is possible. The placing-out agency has its place, last in the series it is through its offices that a permanent and suitable home is found where the child may become a man. No one of these agencies is sufficient of itself, all are needed, and in all and between all charity — the charity that suffereth long and is kind, that beareth all things, believeth all things, hopeth all things, endureth all things—is needed most of all.

VI.

The Segregation of Defectives.

REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON COLONIES FOR SEGREGATION OF DEFECTIVES.

BY ALEXANDER JOHNSON, SUPT. SCHOOL FOR FEEBLE-MINDED, INDIANA.

A possible inference from the title of this committee, that the National Conference is practically agreed upon the question which that title suggests, might not be altogether safe. It is true that discussions and papers leading up to the acceptance of the theory, have had place in our proceedings for many years past. Segregation of such of the defectives as may be properly classed as degenerates, has been the leading topic of at least one presidential address. Many of our best known speakers who have touched upon the subject, have seemed to be of the opinion that, while complete and permanent segregation of all degenerates is impossible, it is desirable that many of them should be separated from the outer world. But the question involves so many things and people, and the opinions of our mixed membership are so diverse that we must beware of assuming universal consent because no serious note of opposition has been heard.

It is certainly agreed that those defectives who need specialized instruction — the blind, the deaf, the feeble-minded — should be segregated during their school life, in institutions designed for special classes. But the term segregation as used in our title, has a much wider connotation than the separation of scholars in different schools. The theory upon which this committee is to report is that of the permanent segregation of those who have inherited their defective condition from their ancestors and who, therefore, should they become parents, would bequeath a similar condition to their children.

Before going further let us forestall criticism by a word of caution. There are few people in the world who are physically and mentally perfect. There are few even in this intelligent assembly, who do not exhibit some of the so-called stigmata of degeneracy. The degenerates whom we have in mind are those who, either physically, or morally, are so far below the normal that their presence in society is hurtful to their fellow citizens, or that their unhindered natural increase is a menace to the well-being of the state.

Before we can state our question intelligently, we must agree on the terms we use. Here is a partial list of those who are often classed as degenerates:

> "The chronic insane, the epileptic, the paralytic, the imbecile and idiotic of various grades, the moral imbecile, the sexual pervert, the kleptomaniac; many, if not most, of the chronic inebriates; many of the prostitutes, tramps and minor criminals; many habitual paupers, especially the ignorant and irresponsible mothers of illegitimate children, so common in our poor houses; many of the shiftless poor, ever on the verge of pauperism and often stepping over into it; some of the blind, some deaf-mutes, some consumptives. All these classes in varying degree with others not mentioned, are related as being effects of the one cause — which itself is the summing up of many causes — 'degeneracy'."

Perhaps none of the advocates of segregation of the defectives would desire the immediate, complete control by the state of all who come within the definition given above. Whatever may be done in the future, we are not yet ready for such thorough work. We have neither the perfected methods nor the trained men to carry them out. But there are certain classes of defectives who are either truly, hereditary degenerates or whose condition resembles this so much that they may be treated like them, for whom the time has come for complete and permanent control. These are, besides the chronic insane, who are universally recognized as eligible for such care, the feeble-minded and idiotic of every grade and the epileptic. This ruling does not interfere with the release to normal life of the few questionably feeble-minded who develop under our training until they are practically normal, nor of the epileptic who under scientific treat-

ment and skilled training recover from their condition of unstable equilibrium and gain a normal, nervous balance.

As we get acquainted with defective people and learn their family relations, we discover that not only are they connected as being results of the same general cause, but that close relations of blood may often be found between them. These relations are so frequent that they cannot be accidental. It is a commonplace in institutions for the defectives, that many of their inmates have brothers, sisters, parents or other relatives in the same or similar institutions, or are otherwise members of the great host of defectives, dependents and delinquents whose existence is the reason for *our* existence as a conference. The neuropathic taint (for all degenerates are neuropathics although neuropathics are not always degenerates) shows itself in different traits in different members of the family. The child of a chronic-insane mother may be an idiot, an epileptic, or only a weak-willed, shiftless dependent. The sons of an inebriate will surely be nervous wrecks of some kind but not necessarily all the same kind. Many epileptics have had drunken parents, but some of their brothers and sisters are not epileptics. The kleptomaniac or the sexual pervert probably inherits some form of syphilis or some neurosis caused by the dissipation of his father or his grandfather, but he may be the only one of his family showing such consequences. Some of the scandalous lives of the children of virtuous people have their initial cause in the weakened nervous systems of the parents who lived at high tension in the intellectual and emotional sides and forgot that to keep their bodies in health and strength was as sacred a duty as to keep their souls pure from sin, but many neurotic parents have children who lead blameless lives.

We are often asked for statistics of the degree of heredity among various classes of degenerates. Concerning no other people, with the possible exception of the criminals, are trustworthy data so difficult to collect. This difficulty has been recognized by the United States government. The last census omitted statistics of several classes of defectives, for the reason that accurate figures were impossible and the attempt to collect them was offensive to relatives and others who must be interviewed for the

purpose. Anyone who has tried to use the figures collected in 1870, 1880 and 1890, concerning the insane and idiotic, will agree that correct information is difficult if not impossible. Difficulty, similarly caused, exists in collecting information concerning the relatives of inmates of institutions. Efforts are made to obtain etiological data but only occasionally does one get application papers that appear to be accurate and full. It is only from such statistics as can be collected by boards of states charities, who receive information from institutions of all kinds and from all connected with poor relief and carefully condense and collate the facts received, that approximate conclusions can be reached and few state boards do such work thoroughly.

Estimates based upon the best figures obtainable, have been made by careful people of the percentage of heredity among one most typical class of degenerates, namely, feeble-minded. These estimates have varied from as low as fifty to as high as ninety-five per cent. One superintendent who has had many years experience with the class, declares that the progeny of the feeble-minded never wholly escape the fatal inheritance. While not by any means all of the feeble-minded have had defective parents, few of them who become parents will have anything but defective offspring. Many thoughtful persons say that no one who is properly classed as feeble-minded should ever be allowed to become a parent. And the same is true, in our opinion, about all who are really degenerate of whatever class.

If the opinions above expressed are well founded, it follows that in some way or other the fatal heredity should be brought to an end. What avails the continual increase of hospitals, asylums and other eleemosynary institutions, if the numbers to occupy them grow faster than their accommodations? How can we possibly leave the world better for our work if we do not at least begin to stop this vicious stream at its fountain head?

It has long seemed to many people that the wisest course the state can take is to separate all true degenerates from society and keep them in carefully classified groups, under circumstances which shall insure that they shall do as little harm to themselves and their fellows as possible and that they shall not entail upon

the next generation the burden which the present one has borne. This is what we mean by "segregation."

There have been other methods suggested to attain the same end. Whether some day or other in the future, science may so far conquer sentiment that the physically and mentally unfit shall be removed, or shall be sterilized, is not a matter that needs concern us to-day. It if is to come it is far in the future. Either proposition is a dreadful one. Some of us believe neither process to be just, neither to be in consonance with our civilization, which is based upon a different principle to that of ancient Sparta or Rome. Our theories of life are inseparably bound up with the belief in the infinite value of the individual human being. Our weaker brother is of immensely greater value than the sparrow which falleth to the ground, or the beasts which perish. We may call on the surgeon for any act upon an individual which is to benefit him. We may not do with him as we do with our cattle, for the benefit of ourselves or of the state.

The term "colony," as we are learning to use it has been criticised, but is probably as nearly correct as any we shall be likely to find. A colony of defectives, in our use of the term, means a large institution occupying many houses and much land. It is a large institution because it should be conducted with rigorous economy and that cannot be, with highly skilled and educated management, in small institutions. It occupies many houses because it has many classes and an essential of successful institution management is accurate classification. It occupies much land because another essential of success is occupation and it is easier to use labor of a low quality on the soil than any where else. A colony is a place where people, who, if they mingled with the world at large, would be useless or mischievous, the cause of infinite trouble and vexation, unhappy themselves and a source of misery to others, may be transformed into orderly, quiet, happy approximately useful citizens. Carried to its perfect development each of its members would have his or her accurately adjusted place in the great complex whole. Everyone able for any kind of useful work would labor. Everyone able to enjoy innocent and healthful recreation would play. Those able to do neither would be waited upon and cared for by their happier fellow mem-

bers. Those who were sick, in body or in mind, whether their sickness were acute or chronic, would be nursed and doctored. The labor would vary from the simplest manual toil up to the most highly skilled handicraft. The amusements would range from "pussy in the corner" up to base ball of professional quality and grand opera. The colony should be self-sufficing to the largest extent possible. Nothing should be done for it that it could do for itself. It should be a little world apart, a world of industry, a celibate world. Its citizens should enjoy all that is enjoyed anywhere, except, perhaps, the excitement of popular elections and, certainly, the joys and sorrows of married life.

No such colony exists in its full possible development but there are the beginnings of many such in our country. No state has yet avowedly adopted the policy of segregating all her degenerates. States do not adopt such policies, they slowly and gradually do more and more of what some of their leading citizens think ought to be done, until at last they are doing a great deal more than those who voted for the initial appropriations thought they were being committed to. Yet many states have agreed to care for all their insane, both the acute cases for whom recovery may be hoped and the chronic cases who need permanent care. Many states have got well on the way to care for the feeble-minded, not only by establishing training schools where they may be developed as far as their condition admits, but also by maintaining custodial asylums for them, either in connection with the training schools or as separate institutions. A few states have provided similarly for epileptics and the colonies of Sonyea, N. Y., of Gallipolis, Ohio, and the state village for the epileptics of New Jersey, are the first of many to come.

Several states have recently devoted large bodies of land for custodial asylums for the feeble minded on the colony plan. Notable among these are Ohio, Massachusetts and Wisconsin. The colony farm for the adult feeble-minded of Massachusetts is one of the largest of its kind in the world, covering several square miles of land. It is admirably adapted for its purpose and is being equipped and conducted with great economy. The colonists are housed in simple one-story buildings. They live a normal, homely, country life.

The principle of colonization in a simple way, on cheap land, has become a popular one in Massachusetts, where it is being adopted for the insane. A tract of 1,500 acres has been set aside for a farm colony for the chronic insane and each of the hospitals for insane is making provisions for certain classes of their patients on tracts varying in size from 500 acres down. Massachusetts is the only state, so far as we know, in which the example of the feeble-minded has been so quickly followed by the insane. But others will probably do likewise. We are not surprised to see those who have the care of the feeble-minded taking the lead in economic as well as educational reform.

Besides state institutions, where the care of the defective is usually humane and scientific, another public provision is made in almost every commonwealth for all classes of degenerates. In each of the county or town poor-houses may be found a doleful collection of the wrecks of human life. Here is the last refuge for the broken, hopeless, social failures. Here may be found victims of the sins of their parents, of their own vices, of unchecked vicious heredity. Here children are born to a life of pauperism. Here rest the chronic insane, the idiotic, the unfortunate, the unsuccessful; the criminal who is too old and feeble for crime, the worn out veteran of labor for whom the world's struggle has been too severe. Here is the *"talus"* of society.

In a few populous counties the poor house is a large building with some attempt at order and classification; these are the exceptions, in most the evils resulting upon the lack of classification are intense. Under conditions which you can imagine more easily than we can describe, the taxpayers support their feebler brethren and sisters, support them, but rarely control them, so that the denizens of these tax-supported institutions often become the parents of another generation like themselves.

Most statesmen are willing to admit that it would be desirable, were it possible, to segregate and therefore control all the degenerates. But the usual objection raised is that the expense of doing this by the state renders it impossible, that the taxpayers are already over burdened. To this two answers may be made: First, that no plan should be considered too costly if it promises results in future economy which would many times offset the im-

mediate expenditures, and that may certainly be expected of any well considered scheme to arrest the propagation of the unfit. The second is that the question of the support of the degenerates is settled. Do your best to avoid them, they are already saddled upon the over-burdened taxpayer; at least the worst of them are so, those for whom this committee would advocate segregation at the state's expense. In some way, either in the state institutions, by public relief of the poor, in the poor house, in the jail or the prison, in the public hospital or by miscellaneous and sundry charity, the degenerates live a parasitic life. They are, and must be, supported by their abler brethren. What we would urge is not to support those who are now supporting themselves, but to do what we *must* do in the best possible way. Is there anything more worthy the thoughtful attention of the statesmen of our land than to improve our methods of *support* of the weak ones so that we may add to it the needed element "*control*?"

We have assumed that the degenerates in receiving proper care will always be an expense to the taxpayer; but it is by no means necessary that the ratio of expense, which has hitherto been usual in institutional care, is to continue. It is to the colony plan that we look for proof that a large proportion of those who most sorely need the motherly care of the state will cheerfully earn their own living when that care is given with a modicum of brains. It is to this fact we look with most satisfaction in urging upon the conference and through it upon the nation, the claims of those for whom we speak. There are many examples of great economic success in our own country and others in Europe. But the plan is at its beginning. The best arranged of our colonies are only a few years old. They have a great future of development along economic and other lines before them.

But even though there should be no economical development such as we hope for; suppose that the cost of wise and humane care should remain at what it has been in the past for the few who have been protected, should that be a reason for the continued neglect of these uphappy people? We do not think so. Some of us believe that while the teachings of the Carpenter of Nazareth have in them the most sublime, spiritual signficance, yet their

chief significance appears when they are applied to the common affairs of life. Some of us believe that those who have been given strength and wisdom, those of us who enjoy the sweet serenity of home, the gracious influences of culture, the peace of order and comfort, those who have been allowed the great responsibility and given the high dignity of leadership, owe something to the weak, the helpless and the sinful. Some of us believe that the "little ones" of whom Jesus spoke, are, for every man, those within his influence who are younger or weaker, or more sinful or more suffering than he. And when we organize our governments and conduct our public affairs in such a way that the feeble and helpless are not protected from the assaults, or the temptations, of the wicked, then we have caused the little ones to offend. And it would be better for us that a mill stone be hanged about our neck and that we be cast into the depths of the sea, unless we have done all that man may do to abate the evil and the wrong, to protect the simple and the helpless. The good mother state may wisely take into her care the weaker as well as the wickeder of her children and keep and control them that the family may be well.

ALEXANDER JOHNSON, *Chairman*,
EDWARD W. WILSON,
DANIEL B. MURPHY,
W. A. POLGLASE,
MATTIE GUNDRY,
A. W. WILMARTH,
L. G. KINNE,
A. C. ROGERS,
Committee on Colonies for and Segregation of Defectives.

MINORITY REPORT.

While agreeing in the main with the report as presented by the chairman, I take issue with him in thinking the millenium must come before we are able to put a stop to the fast increasing population of the epileptics and feeble-minded. I believe the

remedy is largely in the hands of this conference and instead of reporting annually the statistics and the facts about these people it would now be well to prepare our several states to call to our assistance the surgeon's knife to prevent the entailing of this curse upon innocent numbers of yet unborn children. No state would be willing to support until their death this large class of unfortunates and what other remedy have we but sterilization. It is time we looked this question squarely in the face and as it is humane, so it is righteous if resorted to for the sake of the child.

MARY E. PERRY.

COLONIZING THE FEEBLE-MINDED.

BY DR. A. C. ROGERS, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOL FOR FEEBLE-MINDED, FARIBAULT, MINN.

In addition to the broad application of the term segregation as used in the report of the committee and referring to the isolation of certain classes from general society, I wish to refer briefly to the segregation of the different classes of inmates within an institution for the feeble-minded and to explain more fully the application of the term "colony" as used in this connection. By this latter term is implied a system by which from a central or parent plant, groups of inmates are taken out and established in detached families, at a greater or less distance from the central department, but remaining under its control. The objects of such an arrangement are first, classification; second, the provision for special environments, better suited to what we may term the permanent life of the class for which provided, and third, economy.

It may be laid down as a fundamental principle of institution organization, that the equipments and methods provided for the betterment of any class of defectives should be planned with special reference to the requirements of the most improvable members of the class. To be explicit—a school for the feeble-minded should make the educational idea the predominant one, even though a large percentage of pupils may not be capable of

much or any improvement. The hospital for epileptics and the hospital for the insane should provide the very best means and methods known to science for the curative treatment of these patients, though there may be a large percentage not susceptible of cure. Then when all has been done that can be done, there are still a large number of people whose condition cannot be improved to any marked degree, yet who must be cared for permanently. This has long since led, in the matter of the feeble-minded, and in some states the same is true of the insane, to the establishment of buildings for this less improvable class, separate and apart from school or hospital centers respectively. This arrangement when all are connected with a general institution, represents the colonizing principle in its simplest form. In the institution for epileptics the incompatibility of temperament, the irritability of disposition in many cases, and in many others in whom the disease has not progressed sufficiently to cause marked mental deterioration or to destroy the desire for home life, renders the necessity for the establishment of small, detached groups suited to these respective conditions, imperative, so that the term "colony" for epileptics, has become quite well established for an organization, that might very well be termed a village community, as the groups, while separated, are all on the same tract of land, the most widely separated ones being less, perhaps, than a mile or so apart.

The matter of providing future homes for the trained feeble-minded has presented a new problem for the solution of which the "colony" plan proper suggests a remedy. During the years of training, economical reasons suggest the necessity of congregating the people. Thus the expensive equipment for training is available to a larger number. Teachers and nurses are coördinated in their professional duties, hospital accommodations are convenient, the matter of parental visitations during the years of greatest anxiety and solicitude on the part of the parents, is easily and satisfactorily accomplished. The more unmanageable readily fall into the routine of institutional discipline, regular hours and regular diet, and yield obedience without apparent consciousness of restriction or coercion. Habits are improved, self-control developed, occupations of a useful nature acquired, and the defective youth brought to the practical limit of improve-

ment; and yet, alas, in most cases, fall short of that degree of development that will permit of their discharge from the institution. For the boys who reach this age there is limited employment around the training and custodial departments, as printers, assistants in laundries, carpenters, gardeners, painters, messenger boys, teamsters, etc., but the great majority of them are best fitted to do and happiest in the simple operations of a regular farm and garden life. On the other hand, most institutions for the feeble-minded have started out with insufficient land to meet their large necessities in this respect. And they have often, too, been located so near a town or city that the price of extensive tracts of land has prohibited their purchase, when they were most needed.

We have then the following conditions, namely, 1. A body of defectives, trained to a capacity for industrial usefulness, (under intelligent and trained leaders), whose minds though broadened and responsive to the higher influences of love and sympathy, which are both imparted and received, manifest simple wants that are easily supplied — a body of people whose happy usefulness is best maintained, when the climatic conditions are suitable, by an active life upon the farm. 2. Institutions overcrowded from the accumulation of this class, debarring the admission of other children for whom continually increasing pressure is brought to bear. 3. The impossibility of procuring extensive land additions in the immediate vicinity of the institution, except at prices that practically prohibit purchase. 4. The embarrassment of the thoughtful legislators who recognize as a broad, economic and social policy the wisdom of permanent sequestration of defectives, and yet whose dreams of the necessary equipments for its accomplishment are interrupted by the constantly recurring nightmare concerning the expense involved when measured by that of the training schools.

Now, if it is possible to colonize such people at a distance from the training school, where cheap lands are available,— and such lands suitable for the purpose are available in many sections of every state,—it is perfectly feasible to acquire at a very reasonable cost suitable homes for all the feeble-minded for whom they may be required.

Massachusetts,—as mentioned in the report,—has purchased for its school for feeble-minded at Waverley, 2,000 acres of cheap land, sixty-one miles from the parent institution and has already established on it three colony groups of about 50 boys each, the two extreme groups separated by two miles. These boys live amidst simple, plain environments and in almost primitive, yet comfortable style. Dr. Fernald is there making a practical demonstration of the possibility of carrying out the plan above indicated, in a manner both economical to the State and conducive to the best interests and happiness of the boys themselves. The plan is economical because of the simplicity of the equipment required. There is no necessity here for expensive buildings, like schools or hospitals, with their necessary apparatus. Plain structures, and simple personal organizations that represent the home idea in the simplest form, with the wholesome occupations of farming, gardening and stock-raising for the days, recreations, readings, and appropriate home amusements for the evenings, and occasional holidays, supply, he claims, the needs of such a family. In fact, Dr. Fernald states that these boys are the happiest and most contented portion of his institution. He properly lays great stress, however, upon the necessity of providing a good library for the colony groups and the system and regularity with which the reading clubs, recreations and entertainments are carried on under the direction of an enthusiastic caretaker, who reports daily an itemized statement of the character and extent of these exercises. These reports include even the names of the books or stories read, and the names and characters of the games played, during the preceding evening or holiday.

It is of course essential to the working of this plan that there be ready means, not only of inter-communication, but of transportation between the parent institution and the colony groups. I want to emphasize also two other essentials. First, these groups must consist of the trained workers from the school, and second, they must be attended by trained people. One of the most common fallacies concerning the work for the feeble-minded is involved in the idea that cheap people will do well enough for

their care. This idea is thoroughly wrong, vicious and misleading; purely as a financial consideration is the idea wrong, for not only does it require patience, tact and conscience, but a high-grade of intelligence, and an abundant faith in and sympathy with the pupils to produce tangible results from this training. Nor is the necessity for these qualifications confined to the school rooms. But they are required for every person under whose influence these people come. It is much easier for care-takers to do for a pupil what he should do for himself, than to teach him through the tedious process of repetition how to do it, until he can be depended upon for it. A corps of people inspired with these qualities produce results that within certain limits tend to reduce the expense and exertion required for their maintenance, while under opposite conditions, the pupil would actually degenerate and thus become more helpless and require more care than at first.

It requires the best of people to give the best training, and only skilled people can maintain the standard.

I have said nothing about the girls. There are so many household and manufacturing employments that occupy the time and energies of the girls that there is not at the present time quite the urgent demand for their segregation as for the boys.

Poultry raising and small fruit culture where climate will permit will afford splendid colony industries for girls.

While the millenium of freedom from social degeneracy is still beyond our grasp, the industrial colony idea suggests welcome possibilities for a larger and more satisfactory, general and complete segregation of defectives at a minimum of cost.

AN IDEAL COLONY FOR EPILEPTICS.

BY WILLIAM E. SPRATTLING, M. D., SONYEA, N. Y., MEDICAL SUPERINTENDENT OF THE CRAIG COLONY FOR EPILEPTICS.

When the entering wedge of the colony system of caring for the defective classes was driven in France in 1849, the wisdom of those who did it could not possibly foresee the success the system was destined to attain — a success, while yet in its infancy in the United States, is already of sufficient distinction to warrant its greater adoption.

It would be interesting to run briefly over the history of the colony movement at home and abroad, but we forego this to more fully discuss the purposes and advantages of the best method yet devised of caring for the vast army of defectives that abound in every state in the Union, and that not only fully keep pace in numerical ratio with the population at large, but which in many localities are increasing in excess of the normal increase in population.

PURPOSES AND ADVANTAGES OF THE COLONY SYSTEM.

We can outline the purposes and advantages of ideal colonies:

1: They provide home life, simple and elemental in form, for they take the individual from his own home, unsuited to his peculiar needs, to a home especially designed to supply such needs.

2: They tend strongly — and this is the best feature of all — *to preserve individuality,* the one thing institutions are apt to submerge or destroy. In ideal colonies, individuals, not units and numbers, are integral, essential parts of the whole. There is in them no pressing and moulding of a great mass of humanity in small spaces through routine life until all are essentially alike.

3: The ideal colony provides vocations of all kinds and degrees for all who require them — vocations ranging from the simplest to the most complex, from weeding the cabbage patch to the making of brick and the construction of houses; provides education that begins at the alphabet and ends in some profession

that guarantees self-support; provides amusements and recreations that are not bound by rules of necessity, regularity or formality; provides for the organization of homes in a way to throw congenial spirits into pleasant companionship, and places the less fortunate, the less desirable, in a class apart; ideal colonies provide, in short, for the infinity of simple, daily, homely necessities that go to create and keep cemented together the best types of communal life. In doing this, they are more than homes in that they provide the highest treatment for disease, training along all lines, encouragement wherever required, upbuilding of character, and the necessary healthful restraint for all who need it; and less than institutions in that they do not destroy the individuality that counts for more than all the rest, but singles it out and bases all help upon its character.

DEFECTIVES CAPABLE OF COLONIZATION.

The epileptic, the chronic insane, and the feeble-minded can all be successfully colonized. The system is not one of rigid requirements in little ways, and may be suitably modified to meet the peculiar needs of the three classes named. But in the care of all classes, its fundamental features are the same. To modify these would be fatal to the system itself.

The chronic insane and the feeble-minded can be cared for in other ways; in a few buildings, or what is less desirable, in a single large building; but epileptics cannot be cared for successfully, or even with partial success, in any other way than under the colony plan. For the epileptic it is ideal; for the insane and feeble-minded it would be a long step in advance of methods now in use, and would ultimately prove as valuable as it has for the epileptic.

THE CRAIG COLONY FOR EPILEPTICS AT SONYEA.

Ideal colonies demand certain natural requirements in regard to site, size, soil, water, drainage and accessibility.

The site of the colony should be removed a reasonable distance from centers of population. The defectives who live in them have no place in the strenuous life. They are infinitely better off in localities where the hum and roar, the wear and tear

and strain put upon the strong in the outside world, do not penetrate. They also require seclusion from the things that lead to dissipation; things that everywhere abound in city life but find their lowest ebb in rural communities. The ideal colonist must be largely an agriculturist.

The colony estate should be large, fully an acre to each individual. It is far better to have a little too much land than too little. We have at Sonyea 1895 acres, on which it is proposed ultimately to place 1800 people. At the Craig Colony nature provided a happy and effective natural barrier between the two sexes in the form of an immense gorge, the men living to the west, the women to the east of it, some of the houses being more than a mile apart.

Purity and abundance of water supply, such as we have at Sonyea, are among the first great essentials. Without this, there could not be complete success. So pure is the water at Sonyea that there has not been a case of typhoid fever or other water borne disease since its opening eight years ago. The value of good water is enhanced by effective drainage. The long, sloping hillsides, dotted with houses, rise gently away from the flat lands of the Genesee Valley. On these lands are filter beds of sand and gravel upon which all the sewage is carried, filtered, and then discharged into a swift flowing stream as pure, innocuous water.

The Craig Colony estate, three miles long and a mile and a half wide, is covered over its southern portion with a valuable original hard wood forest, embracing 640 acres, a splendid feature in any institution having industrial aims. The soil is varied, lying in three essentially different strips; that on the east a fine productive clay, that on the west a rich, sandy loam, easy of cultivation and capable of enormous yields, that on the flat lands, 400 acres in extent, whose soil reaches a depth of five to six feet, being ideal for extensive and diversified farming. The clay on the east makes fine brick, a plant for the purpose having been in operation several years, turning out about half a million annually, the net profit on them being $2,500 to $3,000 a year. This industry is carried on almost wholly by epileptic labor. The clay de-

posits cover 135 acres, enough to furnish raw material for a period of some 200 years at the present rate of consumption.

The garden, now 75 acres in extent, but capable of enlargement to 300 or 400 acres when required, is made to yield, almost entirely through epileptic labor, all the vegetables required by a village of 1,000 persons during the summer and enough besides for canning for use during the winter months. Last season we sold a surplus of 8,000 cans to other institutions. There are now about 600 acres under cultivation on the farm, the chief products raised being wheat, oats, hay, potatoes, corn and peas.

It is difficult to appreciate the great value of the agricultural side of a colony like this as represented in the farm and garden, in its 40 acres of fruits of all kinds, its large milk supply, poultry, sheep, and the like, without understanding the enormous good such things do the epileptic in two ways:

First — In providing him with the food supplies most suited to his needs at the minimum of cost, and

Second — In having him produce them by his own labor.

This combination is the chief link in the long chain that goes to make up the ideal in colony life. Fail to forge such a link into such a chain and its whole value will be destroyed.

The colonists attend schools and acquire trades. At present about 100 of the younger are engaged in getting educations adapted to their needs. They are graded into classes, with teachers for each class. The boys attend the Sloyd School, that fits them in two to three years to take up advanced carpentry. They build houses and make furniture. Others are apprenticed to the painter, the upholsterer, the printer, the blacksmith, the mason, the engineer, the laundry man, and other artisans; all becoming in time proficient in their several fields.

They have short hours of labor and are led, not driven, to work. They have plenty of time for amusement and recreation, indulging in base ball, foot ball, indoor games of all kinds, reading, getting up stage plays, and spending their time when free from duty as they desire, or as people in ordinary communities do.

And just here comes in the most valuable part of it all. All are free. That is, all who have enough mind to permit them

to exercise self-care to a safe extent. There are no barred windows or locked doors, save for the few whose safety demands it; and yet under this liberal system less than one per cent. leave the colony without permission. This is the finest feature of the entire scheme; the feature of perfect freedom. We have some trouble, to be sure, for we are dealing with human nature diseased, human nature pathologically modified, which makes illogical conduct easy, even necessary because it is unavoidable.

It is my conviction that many institutions would do greater good if they would adopt measures of greater freedom towards those they care for. Witness the benefits derived from the abolition of forms of bodily restraint applied to the insane, and forms of restraint in the way of walls and high fences about insane hospital buildings during the past quarter century.

A notable revolution in this respect has been at work since Pinel struck the manacles from the hands of the insane at the old Salpetrière more than a hundred years ago, when he said, "I am convinced that these lunatics are so unmanageable only because they are robbed of air and liberty, and I dare to hope much from the opposite means of treatment."

The very essence of meaning of the word "colony" is the strongest antithesis to the word restraint. Ideal colonies mean ideal freedom.

BUILDING TO SECURE HOME LIFE.

From a knowledge acquired through experience in an institution where home-life was impossible, and from a knowledge of the home-life conditions prevailing at the Craig Colony, I have come to believe that the home instinct is the last of the natural desires to die even in a people who suffer mental enfeeblement through chronic and far-reaching diseases. These people are perpetually longing for home, and it would seem that the enlightened civilization that assumes their care should appreciate their wants and give them, as far as possible, that which they so earnestly desire.

It may be claimed that the cost of building cottages or small houses is greater than for one building accommodating

hundreds; but this opinion is erroneous. It has not been the case at the Craig Colony. The idea that vast numbers of certain classes should live under one roof has prevailed through misconception and too great a reverence for long established precedents.

The model colony, in recognition of the peculiar needs of epileptics, will provide for three classes of dwellings, not including a hospital, as follows:

Class I should hold anywhere from twelve to sixteen or eighteen patients, and these patients should be of the best; good enough in every respect to assume the entire care of the household in all its details, under the general supervision of one nurse or employee, who should look afer sick patients and make observations of the seizures for the physicians in charge. These small cottages should be made home-like, cozy and attractive as possible, and no room should hold more than two persons, while one-half of the patients should have single rooms. The half dozen cottages of this kind now in use at the Craig Colony cost less than $390 a bed. They were designed by one of the best known firms of architects in this country, and they are managed continuously without a jar, or without friction of any kind. If insane, idiotic, or low-grade imbecile epileptics are debarred, approximately twenty per cent. of all the colonists will live in houses of the type of Class I.

Houses in Class II should be large enough to accommodate from twenty-five to thirty-five persons, and should be in charge of two employees — cook and nurse. These dwellings need to be more numerous, for in them the great middle class, numbering from sixty to seventy per cent. of the entire population will find a home. They should have light and airy rooms; large hat and coat rooms, smoking and sitting rooms for men, and plenty of closets and shelf space, for most of these people find comfort in looking after their individual possessions; ample verandas, reading and writing rooms. To lessen the danger from fire, these houses should not be grouped closer together than seventy-five to one hundred feet, nor more than 100 to 150 feet apart, in order that they may be heated from one central point,

and that all the patients of a group may use one shower or rain bath, there being several groups in all.

Some houses need individual bath tubs for sick or feeble persons; but great economy of time will be gained if central bathing and heating plants are established.

Class III should consist of infirmaries — buildings combining home and hospital — for the use of perpetually bed-ridden, paralytic, or other helpless cases. These houses should be large enough to care for from ten per cent. to twenty per cent. of the epileptic colony, and one such structure should be provided for each sex. Each building should contain isolation rooms for cases mentally disturbed, a common feature among many epileptics.

There is one minor point about the homes which each colony may prefer to settle for itself, and that is the exterior design of buildings. Some colonies, especially in England, have proceeded on the principle that uniformity in shape, design and color should not prevail; while at the Craig Colony, in New York, under the advice of eminent architects, thirty-seven cottages, comprising the main groups in the male and female divisions, are similar in exterior design and internal arrangement, but not as to capacity. They are pure white outside, have red roofs, and are fairly pure specimens of Spanish architecture — a style that always lends an added beauty to appropriate settings of forests, verdant fields, and blooming flowers.

In preparing places of residence for assistants, we should follow out the home idea, and for all heads of departments and chief officers, build cottages for their use. In the country, where space is plentiful, it is better for reasons of health and individual comfort not to crowd employees into a small space on the tenement house plan, but to scatter them at intervals over the premises. By all means give them individual homes.

COMMUNITY BUILDINGS REQUIRED.

In addition to homes for patients, an Ideal Colony should have the following buildings:

1. A house for administrative work, containing no patients, to be regulated in size by the ultimate size of the colony.

2. A hospital building, complete in equipment and thoroughly modern in every respect, for the treatment of acute medical and surgical cases.

3. Industrial buildings, including laundry, power plants, and bakery, shops for new and repair work in wood, iron, printing, upholstery, leather, plumbing, painting, electric and steam engineering, tailoring, shoemaking and dressmaking.

4. Special industrial buildings for educational purposes; those for men to include Sloyd school, trades school, carpenter shop, and nearly all the above, to be used in an elementary way by apprentices to fit them for higher and more practical work along similar lines. For the women, laundering, sewing, knitting by hand and machine, darning, rug weaving, basket making, and the domestic arts, should be engaged in.

Some special constructional features should be incorporated, the more prominent of these being stairways broken by landings, to prevent patients from falling the entire length. All woodwork should have the sharp corners and angles broadly rounded to lessen the danger of cuts from falls during attacks; and all steam and hotwater pipes and radiators should be effectually covered or guarded, to prevent burning during coma following a seizure.

An ideal colony for epileptics will not fail to make provision for a laboratory for original study and research. It is not enough to feel that we have done our whole duty in providing homes for the care and maintenance of epileptics; a broader duty demands that we use to the fullest extent all the resources at our command for the scientific study and skilled treatment of this obstinate malady, not only on account of the incalculable good we may do those under our immediate care, but for the possible benefit of like sufferers at large.

THE COST OF CONSTRUCTION.

The cost of building a colony and equipping it ready for use can be definitely ascertained before the work is begun if the cost of the land only is known.

Durable brick houses will cost about $500 per bed, while the cost of furnishing will vary from $30.00 to $50.00 per person.

The latter sum is ample for some luxuries, such as easy chairs, pictures, bits of carpet, etc.; the former furnishing the actual necessities only. About one-half the cost of the colony will be in the houses, the balance will be in plants to supply heat, light and water, in administrative offices and hospitals, in furnishing, in industrial shops, farm stock and implements, sewerage systems, roads, walks, grading, and homes for officers and employees.

There is no valid objection, within our knowledge, to building some houses of wood, if they can be made small, properly located, and protected against fire; and they can be made ready for occupancy at about one-half the cost of brick and stone buildings.

THE COST OF MAINTENANCE.

The cost of maintenance for mixed classes of patients in colonies after the population reaches 600 to 700 will be less than for the insane; while colonies for selected cases only should not require more than $75.00 to $80.00 a patient a year, and under ideal conditions even less.

The per capita cost of keeping approximately 800 patients at the Craig Colony during the past year was $152.02. This included each colonist's share of the cost of the following items:

1. Salaries of officers.
2. Wages of labor.
3. Expenses of managers, etc.
4. Provisions.
5. Household stores.
6. Clothing.
7. Fuel and light.
8. Hospital and medical supplies.
9. Shop, farm and garden supplies.
10. Ordinary repairs.
11. Transportation of inmates.

In this, in items 1 and 2, is included the pay of seven physicians and a number of teachers. There is no question but the colony plan provides better maintenance at less cost than any other plan so far devised.

ADMINISTRATIVE ORGANIZATION.

The resident officers of a colony ideally organized should include the following:

Medical superintendent, appointed by the managers; first assistant physician, assistant physicians, woman physician, medical internes, pathologist, pathologist's assistant, steward, matron, chaplain or chaplains, all appointed by the superintendent.

The ratio of medical officers, exclusive of the pathologist and his assistant, should not be less than one to every 100 patients. It is desirable to avoid the appearance of partiality in religious matters and to have a resident Roman Catholic and a resident Protestant chaplain. In some states or localities two chaplains may not be required, but it is always desirable to have one.

A force of administrative assistants, filling the following positions, should be provided for: stenographers, bookkeepers, storekeeper and assistant, apothecary, sloyd instructor, musical instructor, teachers. Then should come competent heads of departments, each one capable of taking colonist apprentices under his care and training them in all useful occupations. There should be an average ratio of one nurse or attendant to each eight or nine acute hospital cases, or other cases demanding constant care, while there should be an average of one nurse or attendant to each ten or twelve patients of the better class. Administrative assistants, heads of departments, nurses, attendants, cooks, and all other employees, should be appointed by the superintendent and be subject to removal by him for good and sufficient cause.

The mistake should not be made of underpaying those who must be on duty twelve hours a day and who are working for the welfare of a people who are exacting, irritable, and fault-finding because of their disease.

A training school for nurses is an essential adjunct to the medical work. It is important that eyes be trained as to what they should see, and hands taught how to execute; and the desire on the part of nurses and attendants to do good work should be strengthened and sustained by leading them constantly

on to a full appreciation of the value of the best work. The good work of the physicians at Sonyea has been greatly aided by the good work of nurses trained in our school under a two years' course in the especial care of epileptics.

I desire to again speak briefly of the one thing in the planning and building of an ideal colony that will give the colonists more true happiness than any other single feature, and that is the establishment of true and ideal homes. And after these are constructed, take all pains to see that the selection of those to care for the colonists will bring into the work people who bear by nature a kindly and sympathetic disposition, an ear willing to listen in patience to burdening complaints, and a heart set upon the fullest performance of varied and trying duties. Nurses and attendants should work quietly, forcefully, tactfully and with discretion, and be the leading spirits in bringing light and sunshine into the lives of those under their care.

The system in vogue at the German Colony at Bielefeld, of employing young men and women as deacons and deaconesses, or housefathers and housemothers, paying them little or nothing for their services beyond their maintenance, but fitting them for missionary or future religious work of some kind, seems most admirable in Germany, and it would be well if some similar plan could be devised in this country. An older civilization, whose haste is less marked than ours, may witness the establishment of this among other innovations we admire in Europe but cannot now adopt at home.

HOW TO FORMULATE A PLAN OF DEVELOPMENT.

Before a blow is struck in the building of a colony, a definite plan of development should be laid out by making a complete topographical map of the colony estate, always remembering the value of *approximating the main features;* and we may illustrate the methods of doing this by drawing a circle of sufficient diameter and putting in it the office building, the hospital, the laboratory, the chapel, the laundry, schools, storehouses, industries, library, and some employes' homes. Then draw another circle and let that embrace homes for the better class of patients; then a third

for patients of the great middle class, and beyond that still the homes of cases relegated to infirmary care.

By doing this it will be easy to heat, light, furnish with supplies, and supervise the entire colony from a central point at less cost than if the essential features were scattered indiscriminately over the entire place. Local conditions may call for some modifications of this plan; but in the main it will be found correct.

SUMMARY OF RESULTS COLONIES ACCOMPLISH.

This summary, while applying particularly to what the system does for the epileptic, applies in many ways to the manner in which other defectives would be benefited under the same system, the proof of which is found in part in the many colonies abroad for the chronic insane, notably those at Alt Scherbitz and at Gheel.

First, it effects cures in a larger proportion of cases than can be effected under any other form of treatment.

Second, it brings about a reduction of the frequency and severity of attacks in the majority of all cases, a large per cent. being sufficiently improved to permit them to go into the outside world and earn their living, the knowledge of how to do this having been acquired in the colony.

Third, it provides special education for a class in the special manner they require it to make them self-helpful, such education as they cannot get outside the colony.

Fourth, it promotes individual happiness in a large proportion of cases, due to living in an atmosphere of congeniality, an atmosphere saturated with a kindly feeling and a desire to help each other.

Fifth, it provides skilled forms of treatment by those who do no work but this, and gives opportunity for scientific research that can nowhere else be found.

Sixth, segregating epileptics in colonies has a too often forgotten value in that it keeps them from reproducing a progeny defective in the same, or even in a worse way. The value of this feature cannot be over-estimated. Epileptics should not marry. In fully two-score of cases within my knowledge in which the

husband or wife had the disease prior to marriage and unknown to each other, extreme unhappiness, followed by abandonment, has been the result.

Parents do not so often lose their love for an epileptic child as the husband does for the wife, or the wife for the husband, when either falls under the blight of this pitiful malady, a malady that to-day afflicts more than 140,000 people in the United States, and that is on the increase throughout the land.

As leaders in charity and correction, we ought to make some concerted movement towards prevention, beginning quietly by endeavoring to segregate defectives in every state in colonies that bear the full type of homes, while denying to them, in colonies and out, the right to add to a burden destined eventually to become greater than the state can bear.

VII.

Needy Families in their Homes.

CAUSES OF POVERTY.

BY EDMOND J. BUTLER, NEW YORK.

A knowledge of the aim and scope of the National Conference of Charities and Correction can easily be obtained from our constitution. Compare, however, this knowledge with the knowledge gathered from a diligent reading of the reports of its meetings for several years past, and one may well doubt if the organization is not insensibly drifting away from its first moorings. In its inception it was intended to be a forum in which the master minds of the Social Science Association were to present to a larger world the combined results of their study of social and economic questions. It was at the same time to afford to students and others interested in such matters a field for the development and broadening of their knowledge as to the means for helping to uplift their fellowmen.

We have noted with reluctance the fact that of late years over much time has been given to the treatment of the dry details of the means used to alleviate man's miseries which might be well spent in a consideration of the causes which lead to them. The fundamental principles underlying the causes of poverty and crime, principles which are universal because rooted in human nature, might well be the subjects treated in our National Conference rather than the mere details of working out these principles. They will be found to be almost the same everywhere, producing different results only because of difference of circumstances as to time and place.

We know at what great expense and personal inconvenience so many of our members attend year after year the meetings of this Conference. Willingly do they make the sacrifice in the

sacred cause of charity. What a pity then it is when as compensation for these efforts they are treated to a large extent to discussions as to whether children should be housed in large or small buildings, whether they should eat their meals from agate ware or china or be seated on benches or chairs, whether the tramp should receive his breakfast before sawing a cord of wood or get his meal without the labor test, and whether we should pass him on to the next town or lock him up in our own; all of which is unimportant when compared with the main questions as to what brings the children into the institutions and keeps them there, what makes the tramp and keeps him a tramp. Again, consider the hours many of them have been obliged to spend at some of our conferences listening to the enthusiastic descriptions of the details of managing some small country home or special work of charity, limited in its interest by climatic or industrial conditions or to the small compass of the locality in which the speaker resides.

The interests of our cause are too large and the benefits to be derived from their proper consideration are too important to justify us in ignoring them for these matters of lesser moment. There is no excuse for failure to adhere to the original ideas of the Conference. We have among our members many persons of learning and extensive experience in dealing with the subjects of poverty and crime, including university professors who have made social and economic questions the study of their lives and the subject matter of their lectures, and to them and others of like attainments should be assigned the honorable duty, which we are sure they will accept with pleasure, of training the minds of our members and the great public at large to a broader knowledge of the study of man.

Another reason for eliminating much that has hitherto taken up the time of our National Conferences lies in the fact that during the past five years the plan of holding state and municipal conferences has developed to such an extent and has proved so successful in dealing with subjects more or less affected by sectional or local conditions, that it would be unwise to continue their consideration in the National Conference when because of

these conditions little more could be hoped for than mere discussion.

Let us therefore go back to the original plan and scope of our Conference and make of it that which its name indicates — a National Conference: one dealing solely with the large questions which make for the welfare of our country and all of its people.

The Committee on Needy Families in their Homes, desiring to adhere closely both in its report and in the preparation of its programmes of meetings to the subjects suggested by the title of the Committee and wishing to strip them of all semblance of mere local interest and to make their scope as broad as possible, sent letters of inquiry to about three hundred persons prominently identified with public and private charities throughout the United States and Canada asking for replies to the following main questions:

1st. What are the general or specific causes which make for the pauperizing of the poor families in your state or community?

2d. What remedies are applied to these causes and what new means or extensions of existing means would you recommend for making more effective the efforts of charity workers and the uplifting of destitute poor families?

About fifty communications were received in answer to these inquiries. The information and suggestions contained in these replies have prompted the Committee to adopt the following plan: — as to the report, it was thought proper that it should be confined to presenting to the Conference a statement of the causes which make for the poverty of poor families, and a general consideration of these causes and the remedies deemed most fitting in their application to them; while in the matter of programmes it was deemed to be most advantageous to the interests of the Conference to leave to the regular appointees and our members in general the treatment in detail of these causes and remedies.

Before entering into a consideration of the causes which make for the disruption of the family or the weakening of any of its component parts, it may not be amiss to give some consideration to the family itself with respect to the part it plays in

the conduct of human affairs. The family or domestic circle is the medium intended by nature for the development of the human race; and the normal family possesses all of the means necessary to properly develop its members and enable them to maintain themselves with independence and self-respect. It alone is peculiarly constituted and fitted by nature to give to man the means necessary for his happiness in this life. For the child in its helplessness there is the care based upon natural love of offspring; for youth in its development the constant watchfulness over present well being and consideration for its future; for man in his vigor the encouragement to duty and laudable ambitions for the elevation of self and family; and for the aged in its declining years and strength sustenance, veneration and respect, while running through all of the variations of age and the trials and burdens of life is the sustaining and uplifting influence of parental and filial love and affection.

In its relation to the state the family occupies an equally important position. The perfection of all organization depends upon the character of its constituent parts. The family is the unit of the state; hence in order that our governmental or social life should attain to that perfection which is necessary for our common welfare it is essentially necessary that the families composing it should possess the normal characteristics intended by nature. In the aggregate of our families lies the strength or weakness of our social fabric, according as they conform to or lack these necessary qualifications.

From the foregoing we arrive at the logical conclusion that the greatest and noblest labor which may claim our attention is the preservation of the normal unity of the family. In no way can this be more effectively done than by a study of the needs of the family for its proper well being, by ascertaining the causes which make for its destruction and the means necessary to avert them, and by the application of these means.

Inasmuch as the plan decided upon as to the report does not warrant any lengthy discussion of the subject as a whole we shall have to content ourselves with presenting a resumé of the causes which attack the unity of the family, making some few reflections on their importance as subjects for our consideration and

study and a brief reference to the remedies which may be applied to them.

What are these causes? Eliminating many of the conditions which are purely local or which follow in the wake of those more distinctly recognized as causes we have tabulated the whole in groups as follows:

CAUSES OF POVERTY.

I. Direct Causes.

(a) *Negative Causes*:
Sickness.
Physical or mental disabilities.
Old age.
Death.

(b) *Positive Causes*:
Shiftlessness.
Indolence, habits of laziness.
Ignorance.
Lack of industrial or domestic training.
Improvidence — lack of thrift.
Bad management.
Intemperance.
Crime — vice.
Sexual immorality.
Disregard of family ties and responsibilities.
Desertion of family.

II. Indirect Causes.

Lack of educational facilities.
Poor housing.
Defective sanitation.
Poor food.
Industrial conditions.
Labor strikes.
Public calamities.
Insufficient remuneration for labor.
Congestion of population.

Immigration.
Indiscriminate charity.
Public (official) aid, i. e., outdoor relief.

Upon a mere cursory view of the negative direct causes of poverty one might be tempted to say that little may be hoped for in the study of them, except as to remedial measures, since they are visitations which in the natural order of things cannot be avoided. If, however, we but look back to the conditions preceding them, we shall find that even among these causes where the individual is wholly irresponsible there are not a few cases where large opportunities exist for preventive work. Sickness is a cause of poverty. Is sickness a normal condition or an abnormal one? What are its causes? Aside from those which cannot be anticipated or averted, what about the numerous instances where it has been brought on by agencies over which we may exercise some control? Poor housing, imperfect sanitary conditions, poor or adulterated food and similar agencies play an important part in causing sickness. Death we know will come to all, but among the poor it may be brought on or hastened at an early age by the causes above mentioned. Sickness and death are sure to visit us sooner or later and in many instances when conditions seem least to invite them: a man will grow old and find himself the survivor of all to whom he might have looked by ties of blood or friendship for care and comfort. These are afflictions which bring grief and suffering to all, but when they come to the poor they are often but forerunners of greater suffering and misery. To these causes then are due such study and consideration as will enable us to avert the evil where at all possible and when it does exist to treat it in such a manner as to minimize its force as a cause of other evils.

The positive direct causes of poverty show us at a glance the fact that they exist because of deficiencies in the development of the individual. Man's nature is threefold in character, physical, mental and moral, and for the proper fulfillment of his duties it is necessary that his whole nature should be developed. If his physical nature be fully developed by habits of regular living, cleanliness of person, good food, temperance in eating and

drinking and a sufficient amount of exercise or labor, he will develop a manly vigor that will require little stimulation and repel all tendencies to shiftlessness, indolence and habits of laziness. If his mental nature be fully developed by proper training of the mind, not only in matters commonly termed education but also on the lines of industrial and domestic knowledge, his will be an intellect that will forestall the evils which follow improvidence, lack of thrift, bad management and other variations of the common cause of ignorance. If his moral nature be fully developed by the proper training of nature's guide, the conscience, his physical, mental and moral forces will be so directed that all of his actions will tend to raise him above the base desires which lead him to intemperance, crime, vice, desertion of family and all other disregard of duty.

In this analysis of man's nature and the means necessary for attaining his end we find a forcible warning to all persons who undertake to deal with positive causes of poverty. We are forced to realize the fact that if we hope to accomplish any good of a lasting or permanent character, our study and preventive work will have to be based upon a complete regard for man's entire nature and that any such study or work which ignores this demand can but result in confusion and failure. As an illustration let us take the subject of intemperance which in the opinion of a large majority of charity workers is the principal cause of poverty. What leads to intemperance? Where does it begin? At what age of life? How is it fostered? Is it due to a normal physical appetite or the result of a weakened physical condition brought on by overwork, exposure and want of proper food and the consequent craving of nature under such circumstances for a stimulant? Is it owing to lack of or abuse of mental training, to a failure to realize the necessity for temperance and to anticipate its evil consequences, or is it due to the desire for stimulation by an overworked brain? Is it to be attributed to a moral perverseness which ignores all moral law in a desire to cater to the lower appetites of man or to a weakened will-power which is unable to withstand these appetites? Is liquor a stimulant which man's physical and mental nature demands and which if removed must be replaced by some other stimulant? If

so can we find a harmless substitute and how shall we apply it without destroying manhood and social usefulness? The foregoing series of questions concerning the subject of intemperance clearly indicates the necessity for earnest study of man's nature in its entirety. What is true of this subject is equally true of all others dealing with the positive direct causes of poverty.

In our study of these direct causes we have observed that they deal wholly with man in his individual capacity as a member of the family and that the evils resulting from these causes make of him either the innocent victim or the culpable agent. As we proceed in our consideration of the indirect causes we learn that he is still the innocent victim but that the causes lie almost wholly as to their responsibility in the defective composition of human society. We as members of that society owe it to ourselves and to our fellowmen to ascertain in what manner we are responsible for or are contributing to these causes. All government depends for the realization of its proper end upon the conservation of man's rights and the maintenance of public order and it is the duty of those who are responsible for the government to see that all of the means necessary for that end are supplied. It is said that our government is a government of the people, by the people and for the people. If we find, therefore, that the interests of the poor or ignorant, the classes least able to protect themselves, are ignored or attacked we must look for the cause in social conditions.

Again the question of man's needs looms up before us and forces itself into our study of the indirect causes of his suffering and poverty. When we realize that certain means necessary for his usefulness as a member of the family and of society, means which because of the present constitution of society he cannot of himself supply, depend almost wholly, because of the character of our social organism, upon the co-operation, aid and protection of his fellowmen, it must be obvious that we are censurable to the extent to which we deny him this aid and protection.

He needs education. His own and the public welfare demand it. It should be education of the character that will meet his most pressing needs. Time is the coin with which the poor

man pays for his education and having little of it to spare it should not be wasted in luxuries. He needs first a strong character built upon a simple but thorough education. Embellishments may follow opportunity and means.

Man needs a habitation: a place of dwelling where he and his family may live under such conditions as will make for them physical, mental and moral well-being. He needs a home in all that that term implies; not a hovel deprived of light and air and so affected by bad sanitary conditions as to make of it a menace to health and life. His necessity for a constant earning power demands a good physical condition and for this he needs in addition to good housing pure food. Because of his limited means he is obliged to purchase his food in small quantities and therefore pays the highest prices, prices which at times deprive him of the ability to procure a sufficient quantity of good food or force him to use inferior kinds tainted by adulteration or other health-destroying properties.

He needs an income sufficient to support himself and his family in a reasonable condition of comfort. To do this it is necessary that he should have an opportunity to labor and receive such compensation for his labor as will enable him to meet this requirement. His hours of labor and the conditions under which it is performed should not be such as will destroy his health or life and his remuneration should be sufficient to preclude the necessity of forcing his wife or children of tender years into the field of labor for the purpose of securing a bare subsistence for themselves. He needs a fair field for his labor, not one created by a congested population and a consequent continuous surplus of labor over demand nor one created by a flood of immigrant pauper labor bringing with it a low standard of living.

Not the least of his needs is an elevating moral influence in the community in which he lives: one which will tend to develop in him personal pride and a spirit of independence as well as love of family, of neighbor, of country and of God. He also needs a feeling of confidence that in time of adversity when the grim spectre Want comes to him in the wake of sickness, poverty or death, he may appeal to his neighbor with the hope of re-

ceiving sympathy and aid; not the misguided sympathy which measures the relief of all need by the dole of cash nor the aid supplied by the machinery of politics, but that true sympathy and that effective aid which are born only of love for our fellowmen.

Following our treatment of the causes of man's poverty we should, in order to make our report complete, deal comprehensively with the means necessary for preventive work. Since, however, we have so arranged our programmes and discussions as to cover this phase of the question and have had the good fortune to secure speakers whose ability and experience give promise of an exhaustive exposition of the subject, we are obliged to limit ourselves in our closing lines to a mere compilation of the means suggested to us in the study of the causes of poverty. In brief they are as follows:

MEANS NECESSARY FOR PREVENTIVE WORK.

Educational Means.

Proper and sufficient facilities for common-school education and industrial and domestic training of the children of poor families.

Establishment and encouragement of aids to develop among the poor habits of temperance, sanitary living, frugal management of domestic affairs and provident habits.

Thorough study by both paid and volunteer charity workers as well as public officials of the causes of poverty and the means best calculated to remove them. This may be supplemented by public meetings and discussions in the press which may tend to broaden the knowledge of the general public.

Charitable Means.

Private relief societies for aiding the poor in their homes.
Charity organization societies.
Paid and volunteer trained charity workers.
Non-partisan administration of public charities.
Abolition of public (official) aid, i. e., out-door relief.
Hospitals for the general or special treatment of the sick.
Sanatoria for consumptives.

Societies for supplying trained nurses for the sick poor in their homes.
Home for convalescents.
Asylums for orphans and destitute children.
Homes for aged and destitute adults.
Institutions for physical and mental defectives.
Mutual aid and burial societies.
Societies for placing out homeless children and destitute mothers with infants.
Fresh air charities for the sick, convalescent and destitute.
Day nurseries.
Loan associations.
Reformatories for men, women and children.
Liberal support of worthy charities.

Co-operative Means.

Co-operation should be maintained between:

(a) All forces engaged in charitable work to secure greater results for a lesser expenditure of means and energy.
(b) Churches and charitable societies to secure the moral uplifting necessary to make effective the application of material aid.
(c) Public official and charitable societies to secure a more intelligent administration of public charities, a lessening of pauperizing influences and a more effective expenditure of the public funds.
(d) Educational institutions and charitable societies to secure for the children of the poor a better and longer attendance at school and a better knowledge of their educational needs.
(e) Labor unions and charitable societies to secure greater protection and support for the neglected or deserted families of their fellow-members.

Industrial Means.

A living wage.
Sanitary conditions in all employments.
Reasonable hours of labor.

Encouragement of small industries.
Abolition of child labor.
Distribution of congested populations.
Protective immigration laws.
Free employment bureaus.

Legislative and Legal Means.

Equitable laws as to:
Sanitary housing.
Pure food.
Factory labor.
Child labor.
Parental and filial obligations.
Desertion of family.
Compulsory education.
Immigration.
The establishment of:
Boards of arbitration.
Children's courts.
System of parole for juvenile delinquents.
Legal aid societies.

The title of our committee suggests some reference to the subject — legal aid. As it calls for information concerning a charity which partakes somewhat of a technical character the committee thought it desirable to assign the task to some person familiar with the subject and identified in some way with this special work. Miss Mary Philbrook, one of the members of our committee and attorney for the Legal Aid Society of Newark, N. J., very kindly accepted the appointment which resulted in procuring from her the following article:

LEGAL AID.

BY MISS MARY PHILBROOK.

One of the greatest helps to the needy family is the Legal Aid Society: the poor man's lawyer. It is surprising how many cases find their way to these societies. This work is not new. It has been in active operation in New York for twenty-five years

and in other cities for a number of years. In New York city the Legal Aid Society, which is an outgrowth of the German Legal Aid Society, has established many branches, among them a seaman's branch, and branches in the settlements, and it is now doing one of the greatest of philanthropic works in that city. Its object is to help deserving people who are financially unable to employ an attorney. No application is refused because of race, color or religion. A registration fee of ten cents is charged to each applicant, and if court proceedings are necessary, the client is expected to pay the disbursements. So great has been the demand for such relief that extensive offices have been located in the business portion of New York, where several lawyers are constantly employed together with a large office force. The directors are prominent business men and lawyers. Until recently Mr. Carl Schurz, Jr., was counsel, but because of poor health he was compelled to resign, and the Board appointed Miss Rosalie Loew, a member of the New York bar, as counsel. She had long been connected with the work as assistant counsel. The Society has an average of about 1,000 clients a month. The work is extensive in its character and includes such work as would comprise a general practice. The offices are open all day, and every day one or more of the employed attorneys is in court, prosecuting or defending cases. A large part of the work is collections. It not infrequently happens that so small a claim as seventy-five cents has found its way to the Society, and such a claim is as persistently pushed, if a legal one, as if it were one hundred times that sum. I have known of cases being taken to court to collect a claim of one dollar where great injustice has been done a client, or where the parties sought to defraud the poor.

In a number of our large cities, legal aid work has been taken up by charitable organizations. In Philadelphia, The New Century Club has a legal aid department. In New Jersey there is an organization which does legal aid work exclusively. This work is carried on by a woman lawyer, and is under the supervision of a board of directors who are women. Its work, however, is among men as well as women and it holds itself ready to do work in any part of the state.

Wherever a legal aid society is located, it meets with hearty co-operation and support from the bench and bar, and from public officials. Cases are referred to it by police courts, judges and clerks of the petty courts as well as by the upper court. Charity organizations and business houses also send applicants. Such an organization is of the greatest moral influence in the community. It not only checks a great deal of wrong being done to the poor man, but it brings sharply to justice the man or concern that seeks to impose upon or defraud the poor. It is a weapon which may be used against dishonest employers or concerns who extort money from the poor, and in many cases it has prosecuted to a conviction persons charging usurious interest on loans upon household furniture, or wages. It has also secured the punishment of those who have, in their haste to get rich, maliciously imprisoned their poor debtors in order to force a settlement of small claims against them. So persistently has one legal aid society pursued a firm who were imposing upon the poor, that this firm asked the attorney of the association to become its counsel.

The Legal Aid Society is a factor in a community. It always has the support of the press and the people, the patient interest of the court, and the great respect of the poor. It gives the workingman or woman a self-reliance, self-respect and an independence that other charity cannot give. It guarantees them a protection, which they could not otherwise get, and assures them that they will have fair treatment, and that a bitter fight will be made for their interests, no matter how small the amount of their claim. A legal aid society should act as a court of equity when an application is made to it for relief. It should insist upon the applicant performing his part of the contract. The claim should be meritorious in all respects, and no fight should be made upon a technicality. This is the only assured way of winning the confidence of the employer and employed. If this rule be followed, a large part of the work which falls to a legal aid society can be adjusted without litigation.

PRIVATE RELIEF SOCIETIES AND NEEDY FAMILIES.

BY THOMAS M. MULRY, PRESIDENT OF THE SOCIETY OF ST. VINCENT DE PAUL, NEW YORK.

The care of needy families in their homes is one whose importance cannot be over-rated, for, upon the proper treatment of such families depend the future results among charity workers. All the misery and poverty we are dealing with in every form originated, as a rule, from some defect or accident in family life and if, by concerted effort and intelligent action, we may succeed in keeping the family together, in correcting such defects and in bridging over such accidents, we shall have advanced very far towards a solution of this most perplexing problem.

At the session held on Friday last the two excellent papers read by Dr. Frankel and Mr. J. Carroll Payne, and the discussion which followed proved, beyond question, that this subject will ever command the deepest interest. One would imagine it had been pretty well threshed out after so many years of consideration and yet to-day, as was shown at the session of last Friday, there are many divergent views upon the subject.

As one connected for many years with the society of St. Vincent de Paul, holding positive views on the best methods of dealing with families, views which I have had recent occasion to change, it has been a source of great encouragement to find that the general ideas of those assembled at these National Conferences are approaching the same same line. Dr. Frankel's thoughtful, sympathetic paper, full of practical suggestions, comes so near the principles laid down by the society of St. Vincent de Paul, that he is almost eligible to membership in our ranks.

The branch of the subject assigned to me, that of "The Treatment of Families in Their Homes by Private Relief Societies," is so interwoven with the general subject that it necessarily involves a consideration of the various systems of relief. It has always seemed to me that this branch of charit-

able work is essentially one for private effort and that the good people of any locality should take the burden upon their own shoulders. I do not agree with some who condemn unsparingly public outdoor relief, for I have known many excellent public officials, in different sections, who did this work conscientiously and well; and I am free to confess that I would prefer to throw myself upon the charity of such men than to be at the mercy of people whom I have heard at conventions exploit their radical and heartless theories on the subject of relief to poor families.

The sole justification for the public relief system, to my mind, would be to force the niggardly and selfish to give their quota towards helping the poor, through the compulsory system of taxation. The great argument in favor of the system of relief through private societies is that it is good for both parties. It expands the heart of the giver, brings him in closer touch with his poorer brother, creates a kindly feeling between them and softens the bitterness which poverty often brings with it, and which has so frequently created anarchy and danger to existing conditions in various countries. Dr. Frankel very beautifully said the other day, "That the poor man was in very truth our equal, that we should treat him as a brother, bearing in mind that we may at any time be in need of help and encouragement." This is the spirit which actuated that great apostle of charity St. Vincent de Paul, this was the thought which inspired Ozanam to found our Society, and this should be the doctrine of every member of any and every such society.

The members of this society are recruited from every walk of life; in any one of its branches you may observe the rich and poor, the employer and the employee, going about together in their visitations. The work is voluntary, every man gives of his means and his services to the poor in his frequent visits to their homes and gives not only material relief, but the alms of good advice.

It always seems to me that the further we get away from the religious influence in our charitable work, the less satisfactory will be the results. The tendency of the times is to treat poverty as a crime; religion neither elevates it, consoles it, or

makes of it a virtue. Honest poverty, decent poverty, and it is much more frequent than many believe, is indeed a blessing in disguise, for those who seek to assuage it. What more encouraging sight, what greater incentive to bear our own trials with patience, than to be privileged to visit such families! I view with grave apprehension the paganizing of poverty. Take from the poor the only influence which helps them to bear with patience the heavy burdens placed upon them, and you have anarchy to deal with. Therefore, I care not whether you have any religious convictions or not, you must realize that the safety of the country depends upon instilling into the hearts of the poor a love of God, a respect for honesty and the preservation of their own self-respect. I hold these fundamental propositions to be the basis of all charity.

The majority of the poor we relieve have fallen away from the religious practices, and the first step in the way of reformation is to bring them back to a realization of their condition. I regret to see that some of our charity workers overlook these important facts. Sometimes we go too far in our care of the poor. I have known where wants were created which could not be satisfied, and the condition of the poor people thus treated was most sad and discontented.

The giving of material relief coupled with the friendly visit, need not to my mind be at all pauperizing in its effect. I have had an almost daily experience in the society of St. Vincent de Paul of more than thirty years, and in all that time I have never had any evidence of a tendency to this danger. Visiting families week after week, coming in close confidential contact, studying carefully their condition, I feel that I am competent to speak on this subject. We have had, of course, families who were professionals, but the great majority were benefitted and in my travels about the city of New York I come in daily contact with people who years ago were bridged over temporary distress by members of our society, and who now are in a very prosperous condition. Regarding the amount of relief given, it is very important that judgment be used in this respect. Sometimes one dollar per week, in addition to the revenue coming in, would be sufficient to keep a family. The

great object is to keep them from want but at the same time to make them feel the necessity of employment to supply them with any comforts. The difficulty with charity workers — it applies to all — is to overcome the tendency to be severe in their criticisms of the poor. We almost insensibly get into the habit of looking for the bad side of their lives. We discover evidences of something objectionable, a little beer in a can, or some other extravagance or folly, and immediately we condemn that family and report them as undeserving. Such treatment has helped to fill the institution with children, when a kindly word of advice, backed with some material aid, might have kept the home together and saved the family.

Investigation may be carried too far, and it often proceeds from this very habit. Investigation should be a conscientious examination and not an inquisition. It is necessary to know the conditions surrounding a family, but because a family had a bad history there is no reason for refusing help. Let me reverently say, God is perfectly competent to take care of His own affairs and if we were to be judged or dealt with as we deal with some of our poor, our chances for the hereafter would need immediate consideration.

I have seen some almost hopeless cases placed in the hands of good, earnest people with splendid results. Where children are in question, even though the father may be a good-for-nothing, always look after the little ones, otherwise you are punishing the innocent by refusing help and not affecting the cause of trouble at all. Some one remarked the other day, "That the amount of money expended is no criterion of success." This is the doctrine of charity workers. The visits of encouragement and advice do far more than material relief, but all people interested in charity realize that entering a house with a book and pencil for information, must be accompanied by material help to be effective. It is the old story. "Advice very seldom or never is appreciated on an empty stomach." It is astonishing how far a few dollars will go in helping a family. In the year 1902 in the city of New York the society of St. Vincent de Paul relieved 7,200 families, made 25,000 visits, and

expended about $65,000, with a membership of 1,200 men. All this money went to the deserving poor, owing to the fact that the members did the work voluntarily. If more of the well-to-do would take this volunteer work upon them, it would be a great advance in the care of poor families.

Volunteer work is not confined to the society of St. Vincent de Paul by any means. We have large numbers of ladies working in the same field in conjunction with it, and in my labors as a member of the Charity Organization Society, it has been my privilege to meet many co-workers of all denominations, just as earnest, as unselfish and as sympathetic, all working for the betterment of their less fortunate brethren. The founder of our society sums up the whole matter in these words: "Help is humiliating when it appeals to men from below, taking heed of their material wants only, paying attention but to those of the flesh, to the cry of hunger and cold, to what excites pity, to what one succors even in the heart." It humiliates when there is no reciprocity, when you give the poor man nothing but bread or clothes or a bundle of straw; what, in fact, there is no likelihood of his ever giving you in return. But it honors, when it appeals to him from above, when it occupies itself with his soul, with his religious, moral and political education, with all that emancipates him from his passions and from a portion of his wants, with those things that make him free and make him great. Help honors when to the bread that nourishes it adds the visit that consoles, the advice that enlightens, the friendly shake of the hand that lifts up the sinking courage; when it treats the poor man with respect, not only as an equal but as a superior, since he is suffering what we, perhaps, are incapable of suffering, since he is the messenger of God to us, sent to prove our justice and charity, and to save us by our works. Help, then, becomes honorable because it may become mutual, because every man who gives a kind word, good advice, consolation, to-day, may to-morrow stand himself in need of a kind word, advice and consolation; because the hand that you clasp clasps yours in return, because that indigent family you love loves you in return and will largely have acquitted themselves towards you when the old men, the mothers

and the little children shall have prayed for you. Do you suppose you pay the priest to whom the state gives a hundred crowns a year to be the father, the schoolmaster, the comforter of the poor villager lost in the mountain, or the soldier who gets five sous a year to die under the flag?

"Why, the soldier gives the alms of his blood to his country, and the priest of his words, his thoughts, his heart! Don't tell me, then, that I humiliate the poor man when I treat him as I treat the priest who blesses and the soldier who dies for me! Alms are the retribution of services that have no salary. And let no one say that in treating poverty as a priesthood we aim at perpetuating it. The same authority that tells us, 'We shall always have the poor with us,' is also the authority that tells us to do all we can that there may cease to be any. When you dread so much to lay an obligation on him who accepts your alms I fear it is because you have never experienced the obligation it confers on him who gives."

TREATMENT OF NEEDY FAMILIES IN THEIR HOMES BY PUBLIC AGENCIES

BY DAVID I. GREEN, SECRETARY C. O. S., HARTFORD, CONN.

The subject upon which I have been asked to speak is new I believe in its form and wording, but the second glance will reveal that underneath the new cloak of words we have the old bruised and battered topic of public out-door relief. Public out-door relief has received many hard knocks in the arena of this Conference. It seldom if ever appears without being vanquished and the ladies and gentlemen of the audience view its discomfiture with thumbs turned down.

But public out-door relief is still with us. Not only is it still a living question, but it even shows little evidence of decreasing vitality. Except in a few of our larger cities, it is still the recognized method for the relief of needy families in their homes.

The system is eminently practical because it follows the lines of least resistance. The tax levy distributes the burden enough to make it easy to raise an ample fund, and the relieving officer finds more or less satisfaction as well as perplexity in granting the relief and incidentally favoring various dealers and landlords whose interests are involved. Clergymen, missionaries and agents of charitable societies, always conscious of a demand for relief beyond the supplies at their own disposal, are often seen at the office of public charities asking relief for their favorite families.

It is not strange that public officials come to believe that their services in this direction are not only beneficial to the poor, but even necessary for the public welfare. The experience of Brooklyn and Philadelphia where public relief, long continued and abundant, was suddenly abolished without serious result, is simply incomprehensible to them. The experience of Hartford where in proportion to population, public out-door relief was cut down in the course of ten years to one-tenth of its former rate, is not so hard to believe, though it may still seem surprising that the pressure upon the private charities is no greater than it was when the public grants were ten times as large.

No other form of hallucination is more common than overestimation of one's own importance. Both public and private charities suffer from it. A weekly grocery order of a dollar or a dollar and a half often appears important, and sometimes is important, but if the applicant went to work instead of seeking charity he would very likely earn ten times as much in the course of the week. Even a single day at laundry work would yield as much. Relief need have but a slight effect upon the industry and thrift of its recipients in order to make the poor poorer and to add degradation to poverty.

We who represent organized agencies of relief are also apt to overlook the vast importance of personal charity from neighbor to neighbor, from friend to friend, and especially from relative to relative. Such relief both in amount and in beneficence far exceeds all the out-door relief given by organized agencies public and private. There are comparatively few people who have not been materially aided at some time of need by some kind of rela-

tive or friend. Working people who have reared families are usually in need of the home which is more or less lovingly granted them by their children. Most prosperous men are contributing toward the support of brothers and sisters or others more remotely related. Employers nearly always have charitable relationship with some of their employees. Mutual helpfulness is to be found, of course, among fraternal societies and labor unions. It is very prevalent in the various colonies of foreign nationalities in all our cities. It is prevalent also in our poorest tenement districts where no one knows when it will be his own turn to benefit from the compassion of his neighbors. Even in our most pauperized cities the sympathy of one's own people is the chief protection against the evil effects of adversity. Again it is apparent that a system of public relief need make but a slight change in this feeling of neighborly and family responsibility in order to add to the necessities of the poor instead of relieving them. Here lies the explanation of much that seems strange in the history of poor relief.

It requires no vivid imagination to realize that the hand-to-hand ministration of neighborly kindness is a blessing to both giver and receiver, that it not only averts the pangs of hunger but brings courage to the despondent, strengthens the weak, enriches the lives of all concerned, and makes for self-respect and moral integrity. Contrast this with the over-reaching deceitfulness on the one hand, and suspicion on the other, which so generally characterize public-relief work, and one cannot doubt that in so far as public relief supplants personal charity it is an unmitigated evil.

That public out-door relief does to an important extent supplant personal charity is apparent. The argument that having always paid taxes for the support of the poor one is entitled to aid from the poor law in the support of relatives is plausible, and as baneful as it is effective. "Let them apply to the city" is a phrase which stifles many a suggestion of neighborly kindness.

We must admit of course that neighborly kindness, however important and beneficent, is not at all times an adequate source of relief. The use of public funds for the care of the sick and defective in hospitals gives needed relief with compara-

tively little danger of pauperization. With institutional relief supplied largely by public funds, and incidental relief supplied for the most part by relatives and friends, we have still to provide for some who are comparatively friendless and for some whose disability is so great and so long continued that the steady hand of organized effort is required to meet the need. This field of work is occupied in some places altogether by private relief agencies, in others principally by out-door relief from public funds. Under ordinary conditions and with proper limitations the field can hardly be called large. It should not be ordinarily too large for the scope of private charities. Both public and private agencies are likely to be lacking in discrimination. If a fund is known to exist whether public or private, applicants who do not require the relief will present themselves. It is possible that such people will be even more ready to apply to a private agency, but unless the private charity becomes heavily endowed the tendency to excess and consequent pauperization is far greater on the part of public relief.

But the short-coming of public out-door relief does not fully appear as long as relief remains the absorbing element in the treatment of needy families in their homes. Dependence upon the charities indicates an abnormal weakened condition of the family economy calling for remedial treatment. The nature and cause of the trouble are infinitely varied, and the modern standard of charity work in behalf of needy families requires that each case should be studied till it is understood, and that the charitable effort be directed from month to month, and from year to year, toward permanent improvement. Relief may be given if required, but it should always be subordinate to a far-sighted plan and a broader effort. It will generally be found that there is more need of doing things than of giving things if the needy family is to be really benefited.

It is in the application of this remedial treatment that public charity most signally fails, in fact the difficulty of doing any effectual uplifting work for a family that is drawing public relief is commonly recognized. The public official is willing to give the relief which may be necessary, but the much greater effort required to do the work which will render relief unnecessary

must be actuated by the charitable motive. In some cases the public official may manifest this pervading interest in the affairs of his applicants, but he is not often expected to do so. Notwithstanding such examples of excellent public relief work as we find in Boston, Cambridge and Richmond, it may be stated as a general truth that funds collected from reluctant taxpayers and guarded by economizing, or sometimes designing, officials can hardly have the uplifting personal touch which may reasonably be expected in voluntary charity. The public relief can neither be refused so readily nor granted so gladly. It cannot be so easily adapted to each peculiar circumstance.

The conclusion seems inevitable that the treatment of needy families in their homes should be left to private charity wherever private charity is organized along progressive lines.

There may still be a question whether there is a proper field for public activity in the treatment of needy families in their homes in the smaller cities and country districts where there is no organized private charity. The advantage of having some one designated in each community to look after relief matters is apparent. Instances are not wanting where kind hearted and discreet overseers of the poor have done ideal relief work in districts where the condition of each family is well known. The strictly local administration of public relief so often praised in Germany has its counterpart in examples no less admirable in local administration in this country, but unfortunately such examples in this country are exceptional rather than the rule. Whether due to greater prosperity, or to lack of interest in public affairs, it is certainly true that the administration of our public out-door relief in country districts, as well as in cities, tends generally to excess. Chronic pauperism is very commonly fostered and the pauper list is extended by over indulgent officials till it embraces frequently one-twentieth, or perhaps one-fifteenth, one-tenth, or even one-sixth of all the inhabitants of the town. The greater part of this relief is certainly worse than wasted.

The general abolition, however, of public out-door relief seems so remote and so difficult to attain that I am tempted to propose a compromise which would do away with the greater part of the evils of the prevailing system without assuming any

risk of over-powering the resources of private charity. The chief danger involved in inadequate relief funds is manifested in the treatment of widows who are left with small children. The disposition to protect the funds by breaking up the family and scattering the children, or placing them in institutions, is too often seen under either a public or a private system of relief. Such cases constitute the major part of the legitimate demand upon relief funds, a part which will very properly increase as the age limit for the employment of children is advanced. If public relief to families in their homes were restricted by law to the relief of widows of good character having two or more children under fourteen years of age, the evils of the present system would be brought under control and at the same time private relief agencies would be relieved of the part of relief giving that there would be most danger of their slighting. This would be a comparatively safe field for the use of public funds because the class to be benefited would have a natural limitation. Presumably no one would become a widow in order to obtain the public bounty any more than one would become sick in order to secure hospital care. The easy recourse to the public treasury which is so demoralizing to the shiftless and indolent and which offers temptations for political corruption would no longer endanger the public welfare. Public charity would no longer be a subject for public shame.

And yet someone may say that those fatherless families with growing children are just the ones that most need the friendly oversight and the personal stimulating touch of the best private charity work. Very true: where private charity is well managed family life should be altogether free from pauperism. But in some sections where private charity is comparatively inadequate, the more practical course may be to simply restrict public relief for families to the field in which it would do the maximum of good and the minimum of evil.

In review I would say: That a poor law which contemplates a monopoly of poor relief by the public official is vicious in principle.

To help one's neighbor in time of need is a luxury and a

means of reciprocal benefit, which should not be discouraged. It should in no wise be confined to the taxpayer nor to the rich.

The comparatively abundant resources of public charity can be used to advantage in supplying the best hospital care for the indigent sick (including the consumptive) and insane, in the proper equipment and management of the almshouse, and in providing means for the proper care of dependent and defective children. The intervening field—the care and treatment of needy families in their homes where the demand for a long continued effort and relief is not fully met through neighborly kindness and family affection—may properly be cultivated, through whatever form of organization may be necessary, by the many comparatively well-to-do people who wish to do something for their less fortunate fellow men.

When such resources are available the treatment of needy families in their homes should not be taken up by public official agencies.

Where the resources of private charity are not sufficient for the field here assigned to it, the most helpful and least dangerous part of the field for the public charities to assume would be the relief of widows with young children.

THE TREATMENT OF NEEDY FAMILIES IN THEIR HOMES.

BY JEFFREY R. BRACKETT.

The topic assigned me is "The treatment of needy families in their homes by charity organization societies." Others have spoken of the treatment of such families by relief societies and by public agencies.

I shall ask and try to answer correctly two questions suggested by the program: What families shall be treated by what we call a charity organization society; and (2) Are there any

particular principles of treatment which such a society should follow, differing from those of other agencies.

These are my chief topics. But first let me try to state briefly what we understand by the words, "A charity organization society." Perhaps some citizens of Atlanta are here who are planning to form such a society in their growing, progressive city. And trite as the question sounds to some of you, let us put the square of first principles, if we find any, to test the joints and corners of our own particular work!

What is a society for organizing charity? The London Society, that great Mother of us all in this work, answers briefly, from its manual, a society for the improvement of the condition of the poor by the organization of charity. What then is organizing charity? That is the point. It is evidently something which is to be done, entirely apart from any name or profession. It is justified in its followers by work and not by faith only!

Take any community of considerable size, Atlanta, for example. Beside any aid given by the city in homes of the needy, if any such be given, there are a number of private societies, a number of small associations or circles, many churches, and a good many individuals, all more or less giving or doing something for persons claiming to be in need. Then there must be many persons who would give or do more than they give and do now, and probably in more helpful ways very often, if they had exact knowledge of particular cases of distress and how best to aid them. These all are the great forces of charity in a community, and the greatest among them, far from the least, is the charity of individuals, beginning with kin and neighbors. It is an actual, active force, and strong potentially.

In such a situation, if there be not a reasonable common understanding, a reasonable working together of these charitable forces, there will be much waste of money and thought, of manhood and womanhood! So there comes need of some agency which will serve first as a center of confidential information about families in distress, and secondly as a means of informing the public mind of the real needs and the real resources of charity in the community as a whole. For all truly charitable persons

should have the common aim of the uplift of families, the improvement of neighborhoods, the education of public opinion.

The agency which is thus to develop to the fullest use the charitable resources of a community must be what we call a general one. For agencies which exist for dealing with particular classes or in special ways, would be hampered by the limitation of their chief object and of their fixed methods. In most communities, societies have been formed for the purpose of organizing charity; in some, existing societies with expensive purposes and scope of work have been given this new aim. The pith of the matter is that a society, whatever its name or origin, which undertakes this important duty, must keep clearly in mind that it stands for the organization of charity. It does not stand primarily for giving alms, or providing homeless men with work in wood yards and visiting nurses for the sick poor, or this or that particular form of relief. It may or may not do one or other or several of these things, according to local circumstances and needs; but it must be giving its thought, in the long run, to organization of charity — that is to the fullest development of the charitable forces and resources of the community, and the true economy of those resources to meet the greatest charitable needs of the community. See, for instance, how the mother society of London, has been roused to much discussion, the last few years, because one particular method of its work, which was begun as educational, the provision of pensions for special cases, has been growing to occupy a large place in its financial needs, in the thoughts of its workers, and in the public mind. What was begun naturally, in order to draw out aid from relatives and friends, to set a high standard of care of special cases, and to encourage public aid officials to lessen demoralizing outdoor aid, has been growing to such an extent as to threaten, by pressure on workers, to lower the standard of case work. To swamp workers in mere relief work, and that largely for one particular class of beneficiaries would make a society the very opposite of educational. The London society is continuing to organize relief for these special cases, but wisely does it sound a word of warning to its workers.

Now, what families, if any, shall be treated by an agency, whatever its name or origin, which stands primarily for organizing charity? From my observation of the raising of money for administrative expenses and the getting of workers and the securing vigorous and adequate treatment of many persons in distress, I do not see how a society can amount to much without treating some needy families. It will deal with some persons without treatment, as when, by request of the Hebrews, it simply turns over to the United Hebrew charities a person claiming to belong to that faith. With some others it will deal more, but not for long, as when its agent finds from careful inquiry that the only relief needed is skilled nursing or institutional care, and then turns the person over to the proper agency for relief. But there will be some families needing more or less continued treatment which do not fall naturally under the care of any other agency, and some families which other agencies, and especially charitable individuals, cannot undertake alone to treat adequately. By the word treatment I understand the responsibility for care of a family or person. That is like the responsibility of a family physician who takes charge of an ill person, or of a friend who tries to help a friend to better living; not the brief work of a dentist who fills a tooth, or the occasional basket of food or order for coal from some person bountiful. The report, for example, of the Boston Coal Supply Committee of the past winter tells that of the families heard of as unable to pay fair prices for needed coal, very few were in need of coal only. Something more, treatment, was needed for uplift. Everywhere the treatment of a needy family by any one, is a solemn responsibility.

The division between the families or classes of families which a society for organizing charity will take for treatment and those which it will not take, should be decided by two considerations. On the one hand, by the principle which is fundamental for all work of such a society, that it should not undertake what some other agency existing for the particular purpose can do as well. Our work is educational, and he is the best administrator as well as educator who gets others to do work well. On the other hand, to set a standard of particular work is often a necessity. Of the special care work of the London Society, one of

its leaders, Miss Sewell, has said, it had thereby set an example as a model relief society for every poor law union in London, and would have to keep doing so unless some other agency should take up well that particular duty.

To educate ourselves as workers, paid and volunteer, is a first duty. And leading societies for organizing charity are what they are, I believe, because their workers are dealing directly with needy families, and so getting knowledge at first hand of standards of living and causes of distress. Without that experience those workers cannot be of much help to others, either the needy or the charitable.

The second question may be quickly answered. Are there any principles for treating needy families in their homes which are or should be peculiarly those of a society organizing charity and should not be those of any agency or individual undertaking that work? The principles put forth for this by the leading societies for organizing charity are not wholly new, but are now being thought out more carefully and being more generally accepted. Those societies are a part of a movement which is changing conditions in almost every field of human activity. It has come about in part from the wonderful advances in what are called scientific methods.

If the aim in treating needy families be their uplift, then, however details of method may vary, the few general principles which experience has been teaching should be guides for all. Those principles stand out plain, — individual treatment, based on careful inquiry; real substitutes for material relief, the best aid; relief, in whatever forms, adequate to accomplish the purpose planned; the need often of the personal touch, individual working with individual, to accomplish any uplift; protection of the ties of the family and neighborliness. To bring about the wider and truer practice of these principles is the task of every one of us.

In conclusion I venture to ask one question which may tend, I hope, to the presentation of some very desirable information at this and coming conferences. It bears directly on the topic we are considering. Over and over again we have heard among the objections made to material relief furnished by public author-

ities in the homes of the needy, one objection that interests me much. It is that the relief must be limited in form and amount to relieve destitution merely; that it cannot be expensive, to meet other needs. Now, I for one, believe that that is probably true of the use of food and fuel and clothing. But those small quantities of material aid are the smallest of all needs of the truly needy who have with them any possibilities of uplift. Why should the work of officers of public aid be limited to giving or refusing material relief? Why should not public officers look more to the ties of kin, and use voluntary workers for personal service, and in other ways try to live up more to the general principles of good work for needy families? My own views are strongly opposed to the need or use of outdoor public aid in any community which has or can have reasonably well organized private charities. The chief objection to this public outdoor aid is, in brief, to many of us, the sincere belief that organized private charity is far better. But in much of our land public outdoor aid exists, from custom and various causes, and in many communities there is little probability of the promotion of associations for real organization of charity. Is the situation in such communities to be improved by very restrictive legislation, if such can be had? If not, are leaders in conferences, national and local, are state boards doing what they can in the educational way, by trying to dignify the work of public aid officials by asking of them to follow higher standards? *If public officers cannot carry out high principles for treatment of needy families, because of inherent qualities in outdoor public aid, then outdoor public aid must stand condemned.*

Let us at least ask for full information of the best work being done with families and individuals by public officials. Let us hear, for instance, of the use by the Massachusetts State Board of Charities of volunteer visitors for oversight of children and of adults under probation; of the working of the Indiana law of 1899, re-enacted in 1901, instructing public poor officials to co-operate with societies for organizing charity, in communities where such societies exist. In asking for this information some of us may be moved largely by the thought that the best way to get good work done in anything that is not to be abolished, — is to plead for a high standard and ask for results. If all that is

expected of men is to administer doles, will not most of them rest satisfied with giving doles; and how will you then get the best men to be officials, men who will do away with doles? Such information will help us to learn what processes will most tend to the doing away of the public aid that harms, to the spending of more time and thought by public officials on needed institutional care, and to the development of personal service, of the highest form of charity for needy families.

THE VOLUNTEER WORKER.

BY A. W. GUTRIDGE, GENERAL SECRETARY ASSOCIATED CHARITIES, ST. PAUL, MINN.

Not long ago the volunteer worker was the only worker engaged in the care of needy families in their homes. Most frequently perhaps it was the clergyman. He turned now and again from what he considered his regular duties to answer a cry of poverty. The business man too snatched a moment from his deeper interests and gave alms. Then the woman of society often took a little time to provide for the needy clothing or other form of material relief. The giving done in this way was generally spasmodic in character, so that its effect was far from satisfactory. Besides, in the larger centers of population there was more material relief needed than these kindly-disposed people ever supplied. In this way the organized relief agencies came into existence. These aid societies at first endeavored to make use of the services of charitably inclined individuals. But as those in need of material relief required constant attention, the organized relief societies found it necessary to depend more and more upon the paid agent. The inability of these societies to find a place for the volunteer worker, indicated clearly a weakness in the plan; for every sympathetic person is sure that there is something in his personal giving of alms which is of value to

the poor and which the organized relief agency has not the power to give.

The difficulty with the relief society and the volunteer worker of the time, was that they both considered the poor to be chiefly in need of money or money's worh. When it was later seen that poverty is generally defective character, that what the poor need is not alms but friends, the charity organization society was found necessary. The purposes of this society being the development of the individual, it gave opportunity for the employment of all available volunteer service. It was found that some previous training, not expert knowledge, but some instruction, was necessary, some of the teachings of the new movement had to be emphasized and even insisted upon, a plan of the work to be done in each family had to be adopted and steadily worked toward; but in the great undertaking of rebuilding weak character, of remedying the cause of the poverty, the volunteer worker must bear the principal burden.

Mr. Devine, in the Practice of Charity, says, "It is not an unreasonable test of the success of the agent (of a charity organization society) whether he increases or diminishes the amount of fruitful volunteer work done in the community. It would seem beyond question that this is above everything else the test of the success of the charity organization society worker. If they educate their communities as to what constitutes true charity they succeed; if they do not do this they fail, no matter how much attention they may command during the brief hour on the stage. The point to be kept steadily in view is that the volunteer service enlisted must be fruitful service. The mere calling in of large numbers into dealings with the poor does not answer the question. A persistent teaching of the fact, in season and out of season, that spasmodic, hasty, purposeless giving of material things is never charitable, but generally directly opposed to charity, this is perhaps the first thing necessary. This should be coupled with the other great truth that, social redemption for the dependent must as a rule come through individual love and the helpfulness which love calls forth. There is abundance of material in every community, hearts overflowing with sympathy, aching to do something: to marshall these forces in the right way,

is the thing needed. It is safe to say, however, that no one should presume to undertake so important a thing as treating a case of distress without some preparation.

There is still in every city a large number of irresponsible volunteer workers, or more properly players, in charity work. They belong to more than one class. Beside those who meddle with the poor as a fad of some sort, and those with natures so morbid that the sights presented in the homes of the destitute are sought as a physical stimulant, here is the Benevolent Lady, the Lady Bountiful, happily noticed by George Ade. She drives in her carriage to the homes of the poor, sometimes with her poodle on the seat by her. She asks the poor woman whether or not her husband drinks, tells one of the children if he is good she will let him hold her fan, and if he continues good for a few days she will let him look at her rings when she calls again. She has no interest in helping the poor, of course. Her activity is wholly selfish.

But there is a lot of irregular volunteer work done, by most excellent people, people deeply anxious to help the poor. They undertake to do charity work on their own account. They are very kindly disposed and often believe themselves to have a sort of "corner" on the finer sympathy of the community. They are usually well known to the charity organization worker, but they are most impatient with reference to what they call the red tape of the office. They interpret the care and investigation and thought necessary to a clear understanding of the case as an evidence of want of sympathy. These people forget that real sympathy is always helpful. Hasty, rash, impulsive giving is no more likely to help than a refusal to give would be. To be too warm is no nearer the right than to be too cold, and is no more amiable; one is quite as destitute of heart as the other. People of this class are at present a great hindrance in helpful work for the unfortunate. They are continually discovering cases of which they think no one else knows, and hurrying in supplies, thus destroying the little self-reliance in the dependent family which the real charity worker has implanted after months, perhaps years, of patient effort. While speaking thus of the methods

of work it is not intended to indicate that these are not fine people. They are such as organized charity is anxious to enlist. They have in them stuff greatly needed in reconstructive work. Only people who feel keenly the sufferings of the destitute are in demand. But this sympathy must be trained. Untrained fellow-feeling is as far from being genuine symapthy as a person with a capacity for music is from being a real musician. There is no error more in need of being condemned than the notion that practically every one without training is qualified to do charity work. The wish to do it on the part of many people is highly creditable, and they should be given a chance to learn how.

A very important element in volunteer work is that performed by private relief societies, corps, clubs and committees. In this it is intended to include the relief departments of churches, patriotic organizations, the fraternal and secret societies, and labor unions. Some of these are well and widely organized, others very loosely so. Some do good work, others do positive harm. The same general organization may do good work in one locality and bad in another. Some are established on a false foundation, others on a firm basis. It is again a question of training. Some of these professedly charitable societies, especially some of those connected with churches, have been organized a long time and possess a large fund of experience, but here as elsewhere the recruits should receive schooling before being entrusted with the care of a family in distress. In these various classes of organizations composed of volunteer workers, the successful are those who, in addition to instructing their members in methods, have also caught the spirit of co-operation. Those who do not inquire as to what other societies are doing in each case fail. A volunteer society may be quite as irregular in methods, as an individual. A very large amount of relief giving will always be done by individuals and by such volunteer societies as have just been spoken of, and this is perhaps the best way, a right view of charity is necessary before beginning work.

The improvement in the character of all this work rests upon the charity organization societies. It falls within their general plan of education. It is their great opportunity. They came into existence in answer to the demand for co-operation. Their

high privilege is to organize charity, an educational matter. They cannot become relief societies and be true to themselves. A relief society does not and cannot do the work of a charity organization society. The great opportunity of the charity organization society is that of teaching the truth concerning charity, of helping benevolent people and societies into the best method of work. From the beginning, some private societies and some individuals will have this knowledge. These societies and individuals are from the commencement a portion of the charity organization society. It, without formal action, embraces all charity workers who have the development of the individual steadily before them, who consider the man himself rather than his condition. The workers in the charity organization society receive help from the study and experience of some of the individuals and some of the private relief societies. The bringing together of many methods from many people of different habits of thought will result in the survival of the fittest. The person who does not see reason to change his methods puts himself out of the company of those who would help. In this large view of charity material relief-giving must fall into an unimportant place; not because it is not just as legitimate and just as creditable a method as any other, but because material want forms such a very small part of the needs of most of those who come to want. There are substitutes for material relief, but what is wanted is not so much substitutes, as relief which our enlarging sympathies tell us will bring real help to the poor man's deep and great needs. If the volunteer worker is not allowed, especially at first, to give material relief, he can do no harm with it; and he may find in this way that he has little else to give. If he has nothing else to give he is unfit to give material aid.

In preparation for these observations upon the volunteer worker I corresponded with most of the prominent charity organization societies of the country. It does not appear that such societies make any large use of volunteer service for clerical work and for investigating, practically none at all. It is important to note that, except in the rarest instances, substantially none of the professional workers in the United States are willing to trust investigating, especially the initial investigation, to an untrained

worker. Many volunteers may feel that the objection does not rest upon good grounds, but wisdom would hint that they carefully inquire the reason why experienced, trained workers hold this opinion. So long as investigation meant simply an inquiry concerning food, fuel, health, etc., it was easy to do.

At present the unbounded opportunity for volunteer service lies in the fields of preventive and constructive work. There are openings here for lines of charity work so fruitful and so ennobling that they must satisfy all great souls. In preventive work, the teaching of thrift, now so generally a feature of associated charity work, is being taken hold of by volunteer workers with highly satisfactory results. In constructive work there is the limitless opportunity which friendly visiting offers. The absence of the spectacular here renders it less inviting to a certain class, but its merits are appreciated by those who wish to really help the poor. In this way both the giver and the receiver grow in wisdom and virtue. Great people have in them the things which the poor most need, and there is no other source from which they can be supplied. The volunteer worker, alive to his opportunities, is himself the relief that the poor must have.

THE SOCIAL SETTLEMENT AND CHARITY ORGANIZATION PROBLEMS,

BY BEVERLEY WARNER, PRESIDENT OF THE KINGSLEY HOUSE ASSOCIATION OF NEW ORLEANS.

The actual problems of charity organization—the sums with human equations set forth for us to solve, are presented usually under the form of poverty, stark, staring, ghastly, merciless poverty. The solution of these problems is one of the high charges laid upon the human race; it is a part of that age long commision of man to subdue and have dominion over the earth.

In these days of fine achievement—not even yet the bright midday, but the glowing pregnant dawn of achievement, we have

found I believe the simplest and truest way. The *miserere* cries of men, the degrading cuticle of pauperism, the wretchedness of heart and soul and body induced by gnawing needs, are to be dealt with at the sources; we seek to prevent rather than to cure the evils of the social body and to cure in the long run by prevention.

I am a convert to modern methods of charity organization. I resented in the days of my youth, what I believed then and what many believe to-day, to be the interference of an institution with the privileges of the individual. The phrase I was fondest of using was machine charity. But one day I learned to say in regard to this problem, as I have been forced to confess about other things in my life, "God be merciful to me a fool," and thus having gone to the seat of my disease, and touched the germ with the needle of more sense and less sentiment, I was enabled to cast in my lot *ex animo* with the work of which this Conference is the superb outward and visible sign.

Still there lingers always the desire, I may say the need, of personal contact with the people whose lives, sometimes dull, sometimes tragic, lend such a pathos to the day's work of the world. Sentiment is the power after all that sways the motives of men. And when it does not degenerate into drivel and stain its own glorious skirts, it deserves to reign. I remember still, we all remember, the story of the man, the Jew immortal, the first fine gentleman of the Christian era, who while giving many things to men, gave mostly and most precious of all, of himself in personal service. We remember how dull eyes brightened, sick bodies revived, tired hearts beat freshly, at the sight and touch of Him who went about doing good. And we feel and know that the service to our fellows is not complete if the human equation be left out.

This side of the work of scientific administration, and science in this connection is merely another phrase for the divine order, is realized in the social settlement, sometimes called the college settlement. Hull-House in Chicago, the University and Parish Houses in New York, Lincoln and Denison House, in Boston, and, first in the far south I believe, Kingsley House of New

Orleans, are the names that come first to my thought as illustrations of this phase of rational humanitarianism.

Let me quote here from the Hull-House charter "to provide a centre for a higher civic life: to institute and maintain educational and philanthropic enterprises, and to investigate and improve the conditions in the industrial districts."

And the Kingsley House charter declares its object to be "to put into practical effect and efficient operation the best system of spreading such knowledge of right living, and the bettering of those conditions which form and mould manhood and womanhood."

These quotations demonstrate that the social settlement is the proper handmaid of charity organization. It seems, in my judgment, to prevent by anticipation some of the conditions out of which some of these problems of charity organization arise.

The social settlement attempts the task not by working upon a necessity from the outside, but by planting itself in the middle of a district where men and women and children are crowded together by industrial conditions, living narrow and starved lives, with the long grey dusty road of daily routine lengthening before them, without hope of altered conditions.

The settlement house shelters men and women who give up their whole lives or parts of their lives to becoming the neighbors of their fellows. Their house is an object lesson of simple living, amidst the actual conditions which limit or qualify the lives of their neighbors. Those who frequent its always open doors, from the whitefaced motherkin carrying a baby nearly as large as herself, and the grimy fisted urchin, whose chief joy is to make faces at the baby, and to avoid the external application of cold water,—to the wearied bodied woman and the man with the blistered soul,—these find in the settlement a friendship, a sympathy, an understanding, that endows their lives with a new meaning, and enlarges the horizon of their hopes and ambitions.

What ought to be accomplished by friendly visiting—when it is friendly visiting and not unsympathetic meddling—is here accomplished by friendly living in the midst. For first of all to effect any radical change in the conditions we seek in so many ways to ameliorate, is this encouragement of sympathetic

intercourse. It comes slowly. Women are shy and men are suspicious and God knows they both have cause. But it comes. And when finally the settlement house becomes the general resort of the neighborhood—the house of wise counsel, the refuge of the sorrowful, the bright centre of amusement and instruction, then we have but begun, but we have acquired the primal conditions of successful achievement.

The social settlement builds on the kindergarten, for its ultimate ideal is manhood and womanhood. It leads the little ones, teaching them to go alone. It finally sends them to he public schools, and yet retains its influence over them by play clubs and reading classes and gymnasium. Public school teachers, to whom I make my obeisance as the most powerful factors of civilization, give strong testimony that the settlement frequenters are their best scholars, and almost always to be distinguished among their associates.

So the children, girls and boys, are surrounded in their upward growth by influences that mould and an environment that compels self-respect, and self-poise. As they grow older, and go early to the hard task of helping to earn the bread of the family, they are taught, not by words but by example, the real dignity of toil. They see that only poor work and shiftless performance are degrading. Boys who are never to be carpenters learn large lessons of the large life in manual training classes, and girls whose future may be as wives of plain workmen, learn that to cook, and to sweep rooms, and to make beds, is not undignified, nor menial, only to do these things fretfully and after a slovenly fashion.

The social settlement does not seek to rival public schools or trade schools. After dealing as far as may be with the tiny men and women whom it is able to shape and inspire from the first, its next attempt is to step in at that period of arrested development of boy and girlhood, marked by the hour when they are forced to leave school and go to work.

We must not suppose of course that every young person, so taken from the books thirsts to resume them. There are as few angels in the industrial districts as on the broad avenues where wealth and culture dwell.

But there are always some who respond to the chances offered for self-improvement. And these are usually the seeds for larger harvests. Without such opportunities as the settlement begins to afford, the boy might continue to be all his life an unskilled laborer, who through the settlement classes becomes a skilled artisan. So we feel that the night school, the clubs, the reading room and library, are valuable supplements to the public school, and we know that a door of hope is opened thus where would otherwise be a blank wall, to some eager souls beating against the bars of circumstance, or forever hindered by the limitations of poverty and toil.

Time fails me to enlarge upon the finer life opened to men and women of mature years by the settlement house. To those whose labor has dulled the mind as well as hardened the hands, and to whom therefore study is out of the range of possibility, the social settlement still has its mission.

There is a side of life in the industrial centre which needs sweetening and enriching, where it is often foul with the reek of sensuality and vice. It is that instinct of the human for amusement and recreation.

Labor is dull. A whole life demands color and charm and variety. The amusements of the very poor are often as dull as their task-work or demoralizing beyond words. Therefore the settlement house is a palace of pleasure as well as a hive of work. The lecture, the concert, the play, these are a part of its legitimate expression. It offsets the bar-rooms, for men do not go into bar-rooms to drink, but for companionship, as men go to their clubs and women to afternoon teas. The average workman of my acquaintance and that acquaintance is somewhat extensive—is naturally clean of heart. His imagination is not apt to be tainted. But he craves comradeship. The beasts go in droves, men seek brotherhoods. It is an elemental instinct of man to reach out and touch his neighbor, to listen for his voice, and to be satisfied only as he is included in some group.

If the bar-room is the only place where men may greet each other in a friendly way, to the bar-room they will go. The settlement offers another place, and while it does this, it arouses

and stimulates other instincts of the gregarious creatures with whom it deals.

The club and the class, the concert and the lecture break up the dry and clodded soil of indifference and of mental sloth; they influence with subtle touch the imagination of the dull, they lift men from the passive attitude of things, up to the active energy of powers; from groping along the noisome levels, to climbing the scented hills. They inspire men to evermore

> "Move upward working out the beast
> And let the ape and tiger die."

In the various problems with which the charity organization deals, we are compelled to battle with conditions which hamper and retard the most ardent effort and enthusiastic zeal. The social settlement seeks to alter and amend those conditions.

The hope of the nation is in a trained and loyal citizenship among its men and women. The settlement has this citizenship as its ideal. Its ultimate is not good mechanics and good cooks, but good manhood and good womanhood. Among the little folk it seeks to so far raise the standard as that *noblesse oblige* will take the place of reformatories and the criminal court. The settlement has for a part of its mission the investigation of the actual conditions of life especially in the congested districts of our large towns and cities, which cry out for improvement and amelioration. It carries no alms to varnish pauperism, but strikes at the root of pauperism by deepening self-respect and self-reliance and stands as a door of hope to the otherwise hopeless, in the opportunities it gives to supplement the meagre years of school granted unwillingly by the mills and factories to the children of toil. Many a boy has entered that door and become a man, who would else have become a machine tool all his life. Many a barracks has been turned into a home, and many a poor drudge transformed into a real wife and mother by the influence of the settlement. Finally, and not of least importance in my humble judgment, the social settlement gives something to needy men and women, without which they may well be expected to live the lives of the brute. If it were sentiment I am content to be a sentimentalist. But I do not believe the good God intended His

children to live on this earth without joy as a part of their heritage. If it seems a small thing to you and beside the mark to introduce a large share of entertainment and amusement into the social settlement, and to dwell much upon music and dancing and games as standard features of the program—look out of your hard eyes and account for the glory of color, the rich harmony of sounds, the laughter of the sky and sea, with which we are surrounded. Men should be happy. If they are not they are crippled. I know that much of the world's best work has been wrung out of the sorrows and wounds of men. I believe that far more has welled up from hearts bursting with joy ever more deepened and strengthened by imparting it to others.

Men will be amused. They will seek pleasure. Give them decent fun instead of letting them wallow in filth, artistic or otherwise. The pit is as moral-souled and clean-minded as the boxes, sometimes cleaner and most times more considerate of the rights of others.

Give people good pictures to look at, fine music to hear, and you will brighten the image of the divine in them, not dull or betray it. For a child or a man not to be encouraged to laugh out of a full heart is high treason to the Lord Jehovah.

The bitter soul is at war with society. The happy soul is one of the wheels within wheels by which the stars swing in their courses, and by which none the less man goes forth to his daily task gladly as a member of the human brotherhood.

A home in which order reigns, where the housewife is not a complaining serf nor the father a surly brute; such a home makes for good citizenship. Out of such a home issue men and women, poor if you will, lacking many things that make life easy, but rich in character and not without compensations.

The social settlement seeks to create this home atmosphere. It summons all things to its aid, flowers and songs and dance and play. All things that make for sweetness and light. It will not be deterred by the cry that people must always be taught useful things—meaning by that, that they must have always in mind the bread and butter vocation.

Cake is a vocation sometimes. To dance is to be economic. To play is very often to pray. People have cause enough to

weep, let us see that they have reason to laugh. There was never a laughing conspiracy against social order. There never will be. A sense of humor has prevented some tragedies. Cultivate the instincts of men to the point of seeing a joke, and you have done good service to the commonwealth. The social settlement deals tenderly with the many men and women out of whose poor lives the joy of life seems driven.

But all the more it takes the little ones into its arms and vows that if they learn nothing else within its borders, they shall enter upon their heritage of joy and happiness as children of a world that teems with beauty and is jubilant with song.

ENCOURAGEMENT OF SMALL INDUSTRIES.

BY MICHEL HEYMANN, OF NEW ORLEANS, LA.

Mr. George S. Wilson, of Washington, D. C., said in his report of 1900: Material relief, such as fuel, groceries, clothing or money, given to families in their homes, is almost universally deemed to be one of the most dangerous forms of charitable relief, because of its tendency to weaken the character and sap the independence of the recipient. We all agree that, except in cases of sickness or old age, help should only be given through work. The poor of the slums of great cities suffer more from ignorance than from lack of work; they are not educated properly. Our public schools do not, as a rule, give a proper education; they prepare all the children indiscriminately for higher education; no practical knowledge is imparted to the poor child, whose school term is naturally short. Manual training is necessary for all children, especially for poor children. Sloyd is more useful for boys than ancient history; cooking and sewing are better for girls than a smattering of algebra. Head, heart, and hand should be developed simultaneously.

College settlements, such as Hull-House in Chicago, Kingsley House in New Orleans, give this education which is filling

a gap left by the public schools. At this stage, the friendly visitor must step in and teach mother and daughters how to keep the house clean, to sew, to cook a cheap, wholesome meal. The boys who have been taught the use of tools may manufacture at home salable articles, thereby raising the income of the family, making life more pleasant, affording better food and clothing, often an extra outing for parents and children, and by degrees the poor household grows happier and more refined. In many localities, baskets, rag carpets, and many other cheap, salable articles are made in these families.

The cultivation of public lands by the poor is, in my opinion, of inestimable value, and has been successful in many overcrowded cities thereby solving partly, the question of the encouragement of small industries and the distribution of congested populations.

Fresh air in the place of the foul atmosphere of a crowded tenement house, a natural play ground for children, a supply of fresh vegetables—and maybe fruit, so essential to health—perhaps pure milk as a source of sustenance and income, the absence of obnoxious neighbors, or bad associations for children, as well as the manufacture of some cheap articles—all these advantages commend the "potato patch system" above all other aids to needy families in their homes.

Years ago, I lived in Damascus, where there is no organized charity; where the State does not take care of the poor, who have to paddle their own canoe, and who have sought many a remedy for their ills. I found in a neighboring village of Damascus, called Zebdani, an industry which keeps every inhabitant in comfortable circumstances: the raising of the silk worm and the manufacture of beautiful silk scarfs and handkerchiefs which are admired and sold throughout the whole world. To my knowledge ,there is not one pauper in the village of Zebdani, called also Little Damascus. Everywhere some other similar industry can be found and encouraged; there is enough idle land in the neighborhood of all large cities to colonize all our poor families who are without work or who are not able to stand the hardships of factory life. Many of our city poor, who have never known

the attraction of cultivating our Mother Earth, will be delighted to till the ground, after having overcome the first difficulties.

It is true that this system is only practiced on a small scale, and is not solving the great problem of distribution of congested populations which should be taken in hand by each State, even by the United States government.

Prevention, which is the key-note of all organized charity, must be employed: find means to keep the farmer's children out of large cities, and try to keep out of the slums as many families as possible. The Order of B'Nai B'rith is doing this work in New York. Let all charitable and reformatory institutions be moved to the country. Let the children be employed on the farm, raising vegetables and flowers, cattle and poultry. Manual training and even trade schools can be established, such as in Plainfield, Indiana, and in most of the advanced States. Hospitals, asylums, reformatories could all be transformed to the country, many of them made self-supporting, and the discharged inmates be influenced to remain in the country. Whenever the need arises for more land, the immense west is open to us. This question of distribution of congested populations is of vital importance and should enlist the sympathy of every philanthropist, of every good citizen.

THE USES OF MATERIAL RELIEF.

BY LEO A. FRANKEL, MANAGER UNITED HEBREW CHARITIES, NEW YORK.

No more significant fact was developed at the last meeting of the National Conference of Charities and Correction than the changed attitude of its members to the use of relief, or more specifically, of material relief, in the care and treatment of needy families. The revulsion of feeling in favor of relief as an agent in the proper treatment of the family taken as a unit, was as marked as the stand taken against its indiscriminate use twenty-five or thirty years ago, when charity organization

movements were brought into existence to counteract the evil influences of such indiscriminate and ill-advised giving. The ill repute into which material relief had fallen, owing to the above causes, seemed to have held a very tenacious grip on the minds of charity workers until within very recent years, and for this reason the sane, intelligent conception of the province of material relief as emphasized by the last conference is particularly noticeable.

Fortunately for all of us, we have passed the day of acrimonious discussion as to the advisability of the charity organization society giving material relief or the relegating of this function to a purely relief giving agency. Even the largest of our charity organization societies have found the necessity of establishing special funds for use in emergencies or for developing special fields of work requiring the outlay of large sums for their completion. It is characteristic that the appeal for the individual case has been to some extent superseded by the appeal for the amelioration of some specific form of suffering or distress, for which proper financial provision must be made in advance of the attempted experiment or undertaking. An instance of this kind is the appeal made by the Charity Organization Society of New York, for a fund of $10,000 with which to carry on its campaign against tuberculosis. Similarly, its Provident Relief Society has, if I am not in error, been organized to carry on certain of its relief agencies, for which its regular contributions were not accessible.

In a recent address Dr. Jeffrey R. Brackett, of Baltimore, stigmatized as "hocus pocus" most of the contention that has been rampant as to whether a charity organization society should raise its funds in advance of or subsequent to the distress which it encounters. The same is true of that other worn and battered argument,—shall the charity organization society or the relief society administer material relief? Happily both of these spectres, for such they were in many instances, have been laid. We are wiser in our generation. The application of sterling, American common-sense, stripped of tawdry sentimentality and even more vicious academic and speculative discussion, based on a lack of intimate practical experience, has won the day.

From the standpoint of the recipient it is immaterial in which faction the assistance given him has been obtained, so that it accomplishes its object. From the standpoint of the charity worker, the resourcefulness which is required to obtain relief can be equally well applied in the proper and intelligent distribution of such relief, and finally from the standpoint of the community, the educational advantages to the latter, which presumably are derived from the perusal in newspapers or recitals by workers of pathetic incidents in the lives of individuals or families, can be obtained without such direct appeal to the pocket book. The community generally, and the philanthropically disposed in particular, whatever may be said to the contrary, can be interested in the larger purposes of the charity organization society or relief society without the constant direct appeal for the individual case. After all, results count, and the organization which demonstrates to the community its ability to cope with the social and charitable problems which confront it, which can show conclusively that it maintains a high record for efficiency, economy, and general intelligence can look forward to adequate support for its work from the community which represents its clientele. In the long run it would probably be shown that the intelligent sympathies of a contributor are not so much affected by the particular distress of which he may read or hear, as by his knowledge of the character of the organization making the appeal, and his belief that such funds as he may feel called on to give will be administered in a wise and safe manner. Such a belief is not an intuition but a growth, resulting from an acquaintance with the society's work as a whole and not from a study of particular instances.

On the other hand it may be as emphatically stated, that any society organized for purely relief purposes, whose work was not conducted along the most modern lines which had not thoroughly assimilated the charity organization principles of investigation and co-operation, would to-day be considered as not fulfilling its mission or meeting the requirements of the times. No relief society, if this term may be used to differentiate it from the so-called "organized charity," if it is properly constituted and is performing effective work, presupposes for a

moment that its aim and function is the giving of material aid, or which considers the families in its charge from any view point other than that of the family for whose improvement and upbuilding the material assistance which may be given is but one means to the end desired. The only distinguishable difference between the well-equipped relief society of to-day and the charity organization society of to-day is the point of approach. At all events, the difference is not of sufficient magnitude to warrant further discussion. Granted the wherewithal for the distribution of material aid, its proper application offers more serious thought and consideration. The dangers of its indiscriminate use need no accentuation here. The National Conference of Charities and Correction is a living monument of expostulation and protest against such aid. Its annual reports are filled with word pictures of the appalling pauperism and degeneracy from such indiscriminate aid. With all the good that has been accomplished through the long and incessant campaign for improved methods in relief giving, we have also done harm. So long and so insistent has been the demand for "substitutes" for material relief that in many quarters the opinion is current that material relief of itself is evil. Let us once for all get rid of this fallacy. Let us realize that material relief is as efficient an agent in the removal of certain forms of dependency as the substitutes which have been recommended in its place and that there are specific forms of poverty in which material relief, and material relief only, can effect the desired result. The pauperism and the resulting evils arising from the giving of material relief have been largely exaggerated. I venture to say that such pauperism as may be traced to this cause is not even due to its indiscriminate use. We have laid the accent on the wrong word. Not indiscriminateness and promiscuity have caused the resulting pauperism so much as unintelligence, lack of sympathy, and the desire for personal gain. I even go so far as to question whether it would not be possible to devise some form of public out-door relief, to-day the most indefensible of propositions in the light of our modern knowledge, if we could be assured that venal methods, ignorance, selfishness and official callousness could be excluded. The

day may again come when the community through its corporate agencies may take over the responsibility of caring for its poor by methods similar to those in vogue among our more advanced private relief societies. The volunteer effort, now so freely given to the latter class of organizations, is after all a civic duty and one that in an enlightened government could be made use of for public service.

Let us not forget, furthermore, that the form of pauperism which results from the indiscriminate giving of material relief is not the only manifestation of this evil. The unintelligent and unwise application of the many so-called substitutes for relief can produce injurious effects as irreparable as those resulting from unintelligent relief giving.

Neither the day nursery nor the kindergarten is an unmixed good. The driving of a woman to the shop or factory to become the wage-earner may be of doubtful benefit to the proper rearing and training of her children. More frequently the neglect of the children which such treatment occasions is to their lasting detriment and is not compensated by the paltry earnings of the mother. Even employment, the best and most highly recommended of all substitutes for material relief, is not always of advantage to the recipient. There is work which degrades and brutalizes, there are occupations to continue which means the sapping of the wage earner's vitality, with the eventual outcome of chronic illness and disease. And even the so-called educational substitutes are not always in enlightened hands. The settlement and the neighborhood house may have in them germs which lead to the disruption of family life. There is no more pitiful example of ill-advised philanthropy than the one which builds barriers between parents and children, and tends to sever the natural relations which should exist in the family. Pseudo-educational influences which develop the child at the expense of the parent, which inculcate a lack of respect on the part of the former for the latter, and which instill in sons and daughters qualities of priggishness and snobbishness to the exclusion of the sense of responsibility for the family's welfare, are as pernicious and as wide reaching in their evil effects as the most

pronounced and virulent results of misdirected material relief. All of which goes to prove that in its essence, material relief has qualities similar to any of the substitutes which may be suggested for it. Wisely administered, intelligently and thoughtfully planned, with a full realization of the end to be accomplished, it is a means to the rehabilitation of the dependent family of equal worth with other forms of relief.

To fully appreciate the value of material relief in the treatment of needy families in their homes, we must study the causes which lie at the bottom of much of the distress and suffering which produce need. The systematic tabulation and discussion of these causes has been the task of this Conference since its inception. We have divided and subdivided them until today we have a grand array of causes, objective and subjective, direct and indirect. We have classified our poor into categories and groups until they appear as objects distinct from ourselves, possessed of different attributes, aims and ambitions. We have the sluggard and the shiftless, the drunkard and the criminal, the sick and the aged, the improvident and the deserter. In our treatment of needy families we have assumed that the cause of distress and dependence which we find on the surface are primal and basic and have lost sight of the fact that the causes which are immediately apparent are in most instances but the resultants of causes more deep seated and occult. Many of the subjective causes which are laid at the door of the dependent family's condition are the product of anterior objective causes for which the Society itself is responsible. Drunkenness is frequently due to bad housing; shiftlessness to the inability to secure permanent work; improvidence to the apathy and indifference engendered by the impossibility of struggling against existing industrial conditions, and much of the crime and desertion which we meet is directly traceable to the inability to earn a living wage. When all has been said, the situation may be summed up in the statement that the poor man is inherently no worse than his neighbor. In the majority of instances he is and has been through the ages, a victim of circumstances and conditions, and the vices and defects which we find in him are the product of the inhumanity of the centuries. If the many

causes which underlie poverty and dependence could be crystalized in one word, the letters of that word would spell "greed."

In the causes of poverty which confront the charity workers, we are reaping the harvest of man's avarice and selfishness and his disregard for his weaker brother. If we have the pauper and the criminal with us, if society continues to foment the inebriate and the profligate and the decadent, it is not because these vices are characteristic of the poorer classes, but because we have failed most ignominiously to remove causes which produce them. Ours has been a lip service; we have censured the poor man for his lack of thrift, scolded him for his intemperance, reviled him for his other shortcomings, and have gone even to the other extreme and prayed over him for his delinquencies, while all the time we have held him in check with an iron hand and forbidden him to rise out of the mire into which our greed has plunged him.

There is a Talmudic story that when a Samaritan came to the great teacher Hillel and asked to be taught the cardinal principles of Judaism while he stood on one leg, Hillel replied: "Do not unto others what thou wouldst not have others do unto thee. The rest is commentary; go and study." Years later, in its positive form, the same dictum was given to the world by another great teacher in Israel. And it has taken us nearly 1900 years to begin to make a practical application of this principle. We are beginning to realize dimly that the vices of our poor are not necessarily transmissable and hereditary. In our present day of optimism and altruism, we are beginning to acknowledge the kinship of mankind and while we grant the right of the stronger to succeed, we admit that the weaker too has rights and privileges, not the least of which is the demand for an environment which permits of development and not decay. We are beginning to preach not merely the gospel of equal birth, but also of equal opportunity.

Ladies and gentlemen, material relief in the care of needy families is the penalty which pays and has paid for its shortsightedness and inconsiderateness. So long as it is impossible for men with the best of intention, to earn a living wage, to provide proper houses for their families, to rear children under decent and

sanitary surroundings, to find opportunity for recreation and enjoyment, so long must the charitably disposed individual or community supplement the lack of proper family conditions, by material assistance, sufficient to make provision for them.

The reason for this is obvious. Human beings, rich or poor, are influenced first of all by their physical needs. Until these are satisfied it is impossible to develop the higher educational and spiritual appetite. If we give material relief to our needy families, we are using the most natural method of removing primary objective causes of distress, since if the recipient had been able to provide for his imminent physical needs, the distress would not have arisen. With the physical distress removed, the danger of subjective secondary causes arising is minimized, if not altogether dispelled. Where such secondary causes are already in evidence, they may be nullified and made immune through the material relief given, in so far as such relief removes the primary cause of the distress. For example, the payment of rent may be as efficacious in breaking up the drink habit in a wage-earner as a tract or a sermon, particularly if the drunkenness is the result of despondency on the part of the wage-earner, due to his inability to provide a home for his family. Improvidence is as frequently caused by a chronic state of underfeeding as by moral strabismus; warm clothing may be as useful in arousing latent activity in the mother as would be a series of talks on the care and feeding of infants, particularly if the original energy had become dormant through elemental cold. To drop hyperbole and metaphor, material relief is an essential in the treatment of needy families for the reason that it attacks the main causes of distress and poverty, and by removing them gives opportunity for a free and natural development of the individual. I have said in another place that the optimism of philanthropy depends on the assumption that in the majority of human beings the desire to preserve their self-esteem is characteristic. This is as true of the poor as of the rich. Given opportunity, a sympathetic environment, the means for decent livelihood, and even the poorest, unless afflicted by disease, will rise above his surroundings. The poor man is inherently neither a criminal nor a libertine. His love of family is strongly entrenched, his desire for social and intellectual

improvement is innate. To work out his salvation he needs the spur of encouragement which comes from healthful surroundings, and the opportunity to keep up a fair standard of living. Where adverse industrial and economic conditions prevent this, material relief must supplement insufficient earnings, either temporarily or permanently as the case may be, so that the despair and discouragement which develop in the struggle for existence against overwhelming odds, shall not tear down the fabric of self-respect.

There is little doubt that material relief given to such families, provided it be given with due intelligence and forethought, will not produce conditions of pauperism. I am of the opinion that the experience of most charity workers here represented will add testimony to this thought. The evil effects of material relief arise out of its injudicious and unwise use. Such relief when given must of necessity produce a condition of dependency. But this is a condition that cannot be overcome, since the condition of dependency would probably exist irrespective of the material relief that might be given. The value of the relief is due to the fact that it prevents dependency from developing into pauperism, with its accompanying evils. It will hardly be necessary to cite here the various classes of distress in which the giving of material relief results advantageously and to the betterment of the recipient. Incidentally we may mention the one large class of families in which the wage-earner has become either incapacitated through illness or where the family has been bereft of him by death. Innumerable instances could be cited where such families find it practically impossible through the remaining parent and the children to earn sufficient to keep up the proper standard of living. In these instances material relief is of far more value than any possible substitute that may be found. It enables the mother to rear her children under natural and not under artificial conditions and in an environment which eventually will tend to the rehabilitation of the family as soon as the children themselves become wage-earners. The temporary dependency of the family cannot possibly be obviated and it is a wise philanthropy that recognizes this fact and that adjusts the family conditions so as to prevent seeds of degeneracy from entering. It is a trite remark to say that we must give material re-

lief in cases where sickness has laid low the wage-earner or where old age has compelled him to give up the career which brought the family a livelihood. Instances of this kind afford the least opportunity for harmful results. With the restoration of the wage-earner to his usual physical hardihood, the dependency passes away, the usual course of family life is resumed, and the one probably lasting result that has been produced is the spirit of thoughtfulness on the part of the recipients towards their wise and timely almoners.

In the appended table is given the study of a family residing in the congested district of New York. It covers a period of four weeks and gives in detail the total receipts and disbursements made by this family during this period. These have been itemized and show most clearly how difficult it is for the average poor man under the stress of competition which he meets in our large communities to do more than keep up a somewhat low standard of living. It can be plainly seen from this tabulation that should an unforseen crisis arrive in the lives of the members of this family, there is not the possibility within the family itself to meet it, and there results the inevitable application for assistance. What is needed here is material assistance and material assistance only. The family is self-respecting, decent, law-abiding and desirous of succeeding in the world. Unfortunately the wage-earner finds it impossible to gain more than a scant living, notwithstanding the best of intentions and the hardest work.

What is of most importance in this study is the fact that with the means at the disposal of this family, there is absolutely no possibility of making any provision for even the simplest amusement and recreation. Every penny that is received into the family's coffers is required for ordinary household and living expenses. It is not difficult to realize how under such conditions there should arise moments of despair and despondency, how the wage-earner should by comparison grow discontented with his surroundings and how in moments of distress, unless sufficient material relief is provided, this despondency may develop into bitterness against his condition and develop thoughts that are injurious and anarchistic. It is the business of the community to provide for such a family what little temporary material assist-

ance they may from time to time require. Naturally other influences might be brought to bear, education moral or otherwise, can but help in the family's rejuvenation and development. Without, however, a previous intervention of sufficient material aid, such other agencies will be futile and powerless.

A MONTH'S STUDY OF THE RECEIPTS AND EXPENDITURES OF A FAMILY.

EXPENSES FOR FOOD.

	1st week.	2d week.	3d week.	4th week.	Total
Milk	$.40	$.39	$.41	$.41	$1.61
Rolls	.44	.50	.44	.41	1.79
Meat	.99	.96	.99	.96	3.90
Bread	.36	.31	.35	.43	1.45
Potatoes	.16	.16	.13	.14	.59
Fresh Fruit	.20	.23	.27	.25	.95
Fish	.15	.15	.15	.16	.61
Herring, Sardines	.11	.13	.13	.08	.45
Sugar	.24	.15	.15	.15	.69
Cereals	.14	.07	.12	.12	.45
Vegetables	.14	.10	.10	.09	.43
Coffee and Coffee Essence	.15	...	.21	.15	.51
Tea	.02	...	...	...	.02
Flour	.08	.06	.06	.07	.27
Eggs	.03	.03	.03	.04	.13
Salt, Pepper, etc	.06	.06	.10	.06	.28
Cake	.05	.03	.15	.15	.38
Butter	.06	.06	.06	.06	.24
Fat	...	.04	...	.20	.24
Cheese	.08	.06	.06	.07	.27
Dried Fruit	...	.06	.05	.07	.18
Soup greens	.04	.02	.03	.03	.12
Beans	...	.02	.11	.11	.24
Total	$3.90	$3.59	$4.10	$4.11	$15.70

HOUSE EXPENSES.

Gas (2 months)	$1.40	...	...	...	$1.40
Kerosene	.04	$.02	$.04	...	.10
Wood	.05	.03	.03	$.03	.14
Soap	.05	.03	.02	.03	.13
Stove polish	.05	...	...	...	.05
Dishes	...	...	.08	.11	.19

HOUSE EXPENSES.

	1st week.	2d week.	3d week.	4th week.	Total
Glass ware	.04	...	.14	...	.18
Laundry materials	.07	.08	...	.08	.23
Matches	...	...	.02	...	.02
Notions	...	.01	.19	...	.20
Bath	...	.15	...	...	.15
Pail	...	...	...	.08	.08
Total	$1.70	$.32	$.52	$.40	$2.87

GENERAL EXPENSES.

Cap	...	$.10	...	...	$.10
Stockings	...	.16	$.06	...	.22
Repairs: Shoes	...	.20	.20	...	.40
Repairs: Boiler	$.10	...	...	...	.10
Repairs: Washtubs	...	...	.10	...	.10
Dispensary	.10	...	...	...	.10
Apothecary	...	...	.05	...	.05
Postage	...	.04	...	$.05	.09
Car fare	...	...	...	.10	.10
Total	$.20	$.50	$.41	$.15	$1.26

INCOME.

Earnings, first week	$6.00 to	$7.00
Earnings, second week		7.00
Earnings, third week	7.00 to	8.00
Earnings, fourth week		8.00
From lodgers		5.00
Total	$33.00 to	$35.00

EXPENDITURES.

For food supplies	$15.70
House expenses	1.47
General expenses	1.26
Rent	12.00
Gas (2 months)	1.40
Total	$31.83

EDUCATIONAL AND RELIGIOUS AID GIVEN THE NEEDY IN THEIR HOMES.

BY J. CARROLL PAYNE.

There is one spot where egotistic philosophy does not dare to enter, where unchristian philanthropy does not penetrate, and that is into the obscure dwellings of the poor, into the squalid and infected dens of ignorance, or sin and of poverty where suffering humanity languishes unseen and unnoticed. There is one need philanthropy does not reach, or care to reach, and that is the need—the want of the soul. The wants of the individual souls of the needy in their homes is not an existing object of charity for the materialist or the believer in the survival of the fittest. The religion of Him crucified is so identified with that charity which seeks and finds and succors the needy everywhere: that follows the Good Shepherd in his search for the outcasts as well as for the fallen, that a cynic of the last century sneered at Christianity which carried its religion to hospitals, prisons and the galleys, and declared that the dividing line between the charity of the Church and the charity of reason, of true philanthropy was in the fact that Church charity is exercised towards individuals, philanthropy towards the whole race.

The grand secret of modern materialistic philanthropy is attention to suffering species, while the secret of Christian charity is attention to the suffering individual. Even so profound a writer as Lecky objects to any extensive plan of philanthropy which looks to the elevation of the individual save as a component part of the species, as being not only illogical, but in the end injurious, because a bad incentive.

Care for the masses is the cry of unchristian philanthropy; care for the individual is the motto of Christian charity, the motto also of this Conference of Charities and Correction. The correction of the cause largely reduces the necessity of correction of the evil effects, and we believe that religious and educational aid strike deeper towards the root of the evil which

confronts us than bare material aid itself. Bring material aid to the homes of the needy, recognize individual wants even when not paraded in public. Hunger is as much felt at home as on the public square and is probably more real. The starving wife, mother and child hidden in our back streets and dark alleys are as deserving objects of charity as that other hungry sufferer whose want is paraded by preacher, givers and the public.

But while we admit that the individual must have food, clothing and shelter, since like the animal the human body calls for all this as a necessity, yet as Christian philosophers, we must recognize another need springing, not from the body, but from that principle which makes the body a human habitation, the soul. The soul needs two things: Education to fit it for its work in this world; and religion to fit it for its duties here and its destiny hereafter.

This may smack of the preacher and the pulpit whereas it is merely the logic of our existence, and the subject given me demands this treatment of it.

Where there is a body, that body demands food and shelter and the means of existence; where there is a soul, that soul demands the means to work out its destiny here and hereafter, and those means are Education and Religion. I do not wish to do more than to recall a Christian principle—the child—the weaker element in the great struggle for existence—the poor whether individually at home, or collectively in our public beneficial institutions—the needy,—have a claim in charity to get from others in the community aids both religious and educational. This claim, equitable in character but real, ought not, can not be ignored. What are the aids in use—what should be put in operation? The aids which satisfy mere material requirements are all right as far as they go, but they are defective inasmuch as the needy man's most urgent want is left unsatisfied. Charity which is bounded by bodily wants alone is nothing more than an offshoot of the society for the prevention of cruelty to animals. It is not charity, natural or super-natural. The aids which while recognizing a soul, give instruction without true education, which develop intellectual powers and leave untouched the heart and the will, are deficient and defective and

tend to make men smart not good; it tends to make them capable but as much so for evil as for good; they help to construct a machine with unlimited, certainly with unknown power, and forget to supply that machine with its most necessary, most important part, a good working, automatic, reliable brake—a conscience.

The aids educational and religious which alone may be unconditionally accepted are those which recognize that man was made by God for God, and just as he must be kept in existence by material aids to give him life for a time, so he must be schooled in the school of religion and revelation to enable him to live his true life forever.

How shall we bring these aids to the homes of the needy and the destitute? As a matter of fact it is not a normal function of charity to bring such aid home. Charity should organize and supply the means, the needy should come and get them—help themselves, draw from the supply by going and getting it; but assuming the necessity of bringing aid home to the needy, how set about it? Start from the principle that the child belongs first of all to the parents and the parents are bound to supply a minimum of education and to inculcate the first religious principles. The parents are then the first on whom this obligation rests, an obligation in charity and in strict justice, and only when parents are unwilling or unable, does the question of extraneous assistance arise. When parents can not or will not help their children then the State and the Church are bound to do so; the State by giving instruction, the Church by giving religious training.

As to the means of carrying this necessary aid into the homes of the needy, the State has devised compulsory education; the Church has her compulsory Sunday services. Where the laws can not be enforced owing to parental indifference or opposition, the State has her penal enactments; the Church has her organized agencies to visit such parents and families to bring them some assistance, or at least to keep the *thought* alive, that not by bread alone doth man live. The Church brings religion and education into the homes of the needy through the instrumentality of her ministers, who visit the poor and teach them

or find them teachers. Her religious societies are numerous, having that aid expressly in view, and there are religious communities of men and women who are set apart and trained for such a life of self-sacrifice and devotion; last of all through those devoted laymen who are known as the bankers of the poor, the members of St. Vincent de Paul's Society, who visit the poor and needy in their homes, in prison, in the hospitals and chain-gangs, and teach them their duties and responsibilities, and preach to them the best of all sermons the good example of a good life.

To aid the poor in their homes, we must not be mere philanthropists, we must be Christians. Christianity alone which makes the poor man our brother and proclaims the truth and existence of the supernatural, points to the duty of bringing our needy brother religion as well as bread, of training the heart as well as the head. The poor and needy have claims upon us, not in justice but in charity, claims we are bound by the moral law to recognize and make effective by ourselves or through others. The first duty of bringing religious and educational aid to the needy in their homes is vested in the head of the family. Since parents have children they are bound to provide food for body and soul. When parents are unwilling or unable to do their duty, they may delegate their authority to the Church or to the State or both, who then teach as delegates—substitutes of the parents and with quasi-parental authority.

The State has a duty towards its citizens of supplying individual deficiencies, hence a right to teach the waifs and strays —the flotsam and jetsam of the human family. The State has this right to the end of bringing instruction to its future voters and citizens, and securing the maintenance and perpetuation of honest and good government.

The Church has a mission which no State and no individual can hamper, check or impede, the right and duty of leading men to salvation and teaching them the means that ensure eternal happiness. As instruments of that scheme of salvation we have the ministers of God, religious communities, confraternities, guilds and the like, all organized to bring religion home to all. But we must remember that there can be no religious

coercion. "Nemo credens nisi volens" is as true to-day as when St. Augustine said it, and hence failure to use religious aids is to be traced to its only cause, a bad use of man's greatest pride and glory, his own free will.

Let us then, have associations, committees, societies who will work and educate—with night schools for those whose days can not be so devoted. Let us make skillful men out of our poor boys: let us teach the girls all that goes to aid in domestic comfort and economy; teach them the value of mechanical industry. For their spiritual training, encourage meetings, the object of which is moral and religious, but make such meetings attractive.

Each church should foster and encourage her own children, avoiding all religious bitterness, fraught with nothing but evil, and which is to say the least uncharitable.

Our civilization can not look with anything but disquietude upon homes where dwell want and ignorance. Such homes are breeding places for crime, and naturally front on the road to the almshouse and the prison. Let us work to eradicate the cause, not the effects. Build up a public sentiment in regard to the needy in their homes, and the work is half done. A Christian education alone can solve the problem.

VIII.

Disease and Dependence.

DISEASE AND DEPENDENCE.

BY HOMER FOLKS, COMMISSIONER OF PUBLIC CHARITIES, NEW YORK CITY.

The most cursory examination of the causes of destitution, whether in connection with the assistance of the poor in their homes, or their care in public institutions, shows that sickness *is always one* of the leading causes, and is usually *the* leading cause of dependence. Of fourteen hundred and sixty (1,460) new families assisted by the Charity Organization Society during the year ending June 30th, 1900, sickness, accident, and death were considered the primary cause of need in 367 cases, or twenty-five per cent. of the whole number. No other cause was responsible for so large a number of applications. E. T. Devine estimates that about sixty per cent. of the street beggars of New York city are local dependents suffering from some form of physical disability. Of 181 families whose children were committed to institutions as public charges by the Bureau of Dependent Children, of the Department of Public Charities of New York city, in April, 1903, sickness was the cause in eighty cases or forty-four per cent. of the whole number. Of 8,199 persons who were patients or inmates of the public charitable institutions of New York city, on March 31st, 1903, 4,570 or fifty-six per cent. of the entire number were patients in hospitals, and the remaining forty-four per cent. nearly all of whom were inmates of the New York City Homes for the Aged and Infirm (as our almshouses are now called), a very large proportion is suffering from some form of physical disability. In fact of the whole number of 8,199 only the eighty-six casual lodgers in the Municipal Lodging House, or about one per cent.,

can be classed as able-bodied. Another large straw showing the direction in which the wind is blowing, is the fact that of the 70,720 deaths in New York City during 1901, 14,192 or almost exactly twenty per cent. occurred in hospitals, while another five per cent. occurred in other charitable institutions. Let us bear in mind too, that in our efforts to protect the health of the public, we are creating new classes of dependents and think it excellent public policy so to do. For example we are gathering hundreds, yes thousands, of consumptives from streets, lodging houses and tenements into sanatoria. Dependence as a large social fact rests primarily very largely upon the physical basis of diseases.

Two ideas are suggested by this predominance of sickness among the causes of dependence:

First, that dependence is not a problem by itself, but one aspect of a very much larger question of social well being, touching the life of the community at many points; that all measures for the improvement of the public health are intimately associated with it; that in considering dependence we must not think only of the numbers and care of those who actually become dependent, but must include as germane and closely related subjects all those measures that look to the improvement of sanitary conditions, the protection of water and food supply, the improved housing of the people, the limitation of child labor, the control of infectious diseases, etc. Dependence is not *per se* an evil: an increase of dependence is not necessarily an evil.

The second idea suggested to me is the necessity of dissociating the idea of dependence from much that has become associated with the idea of pauperism. Not so many years ago, we used to talk about the "pauper insane." I think the phrase is no longer used; we at least accept implicitly the fact that the insane are sick people to be cured if possible, but at any rate to be cared for; and that in dealing with them, nothing could be further from wisdom than the application of those principles and methods which we all accept in the treatment of pauperism. The patients in our sanatoria for consumptives certainly are not paupers in the sense in which that term is

currently understood. We are not speaking now of the legal definition of the term pauper, but of its ordinary significance. Patients in our public general hospitals, with few exceptions, have little or nothing in common with paupers, as that term is commonly understood. In dealing with them, the thing to be kept prominently in mind, is not the danger of pauperizing them, but the exceeding importance of curing them at the earliest moment and no treatment or care is too expensive to be economical, if it contributes directly and materially to that result.

Thus far, I presume I have voiced the sentiments of practically all those connected with this Conference. I wish, however, to raise the further question as to whether the time has not come when the inmates of our almshouses should be considered as more nearly related to hospital patients than to paupers. We all know that there is every gradation from the hospital ward in which only accident cases are received, to the almshouse ward in which only those suffering from the general breakdown accompanying old age are received.

At what stage of chronicity of disease does it become appropriate to apply the term pauper to a patient?

The tendency of recent charity administration is to make physical disability the *one indispensable* condition for admission to a public charitable institution. Our statutes which formerly authorized the commitment of vagrants, street beggars, and other able-bodied people to almshouses are being changed, and such persons are being recognized as proper subjects for the discipline of a correctional institution. In New York City, magistrates have had no authority to commit to the Almshouse since January 1st, 1895. The Almshouse is now strictly a voluntary institution; it first became in fact what it afterwards became in name, a *Home* for the Aged and Infirm. The establishment of the municipal lodging houses with their work tests of wood yards, and of other means for the temporary employment of able-bodied, destitute persons, has been another powerful factor in eliminating the able-bodied element from the almshouse.

Is not the difference between dependence and pauperism this,— that dependency carries with it no suggestion of re-

proach, while pauperism implies a willingness and a desire to receive charitable aid when such aid is not a necessity — a preference for accepting the public bounty rather than for making all reasonable effort for self-support. If so, pauperism is a term which has less and less application to our almshouse population. In fact, it sometimes seems to me, that just as we have worked out a satisfactory plan of dealing with pauperism, the pauper is about to disappear. The fact that the inmates of our almshouses, as well as of our hospitals, are definitely removed by physical disability from the possibility of self-support either temporarily or permanently, seems to me extremely important, and should have an important bearing upon our attitude toward such reasons and upon our methods of conducting such institutions.

Add to this the fact that we instinctively feel that *age,* as such, if by reason of destitution it becomes a public charge, should be treated with a degree of consideration quite different from that properly accorded the middle-aged, able-bodied, voluntary pauper. Proper respect for and care of the aged, who are rightly charges upon us, is a measure of civilization quite as much in the case of communities as in the case of families, according to their responsibilities. It is no doubt true that the disease and infirmity which bring these aged persons to a condition of dependence are themselves due to earlier causes which may or may not imply ill desert. The excessive use of alcoholic liquors and other forms of dissipation are unquestionably the occasion of a very large amount of tuberculosis. Probably in the lives of a very large proportion of almshouse inmates there are at least some chapters that had better be left unread. But to what extent, after all, should this affect our care of them in the few remaining years of their lives? Even though they may have been dissipated or vicious, to what extent need we, so to speak, "rub it in" in their old age? Now that the years of activity with their opportunities and temptations, their struggle for existence are over; now that the ability for self-support is undeniably gone, no matter how, shall we not recognize them all, if without means and no relatives able to support them, as

entitled to a treatment at the hands of the public which shall be quite different from that accorded in correctional institutions to able-bodied vagrants. Death is the great leveller, and as it casts its shadow before, those who enter it tend to lose the characteristics that have marked certain individuals as different from others in their social relations. As in caring for children, we take little account of their good or ill deserts but only of their needs, may we not follow a somewhat similar course in caring for those in their second childhood. Not by any means that the same treatment shall be measured out for all, but that differences of care shall be based on present tasks, habits and capacities, and not on past deserts I am led to believe that a considerable reconstruction of our ideas of the proper care of the destitute aged is necessary and proper, and that the conditions which might have made certain improvements of doubtful propriety in the past, no longer exists, now that we have got rid of the able-bodied pauper as an appreciable factor in the almhouse population. Among these improvements the following seem to me desirable:

(1) Buildings should be so constructed as to afford opportunity for reasonable privacy. The old-fashioned, open dormitory, with its long rows of beds may not be a serious hardship to some of the aged; certainly it is to many of them. I would therefore have smaller cottage buildings for at least a proportion of the inmates. I would provide separate quarters for the aged couples. There are not many of them, but whether the number be small or large, it is not seemly for us to part asunder those whom God hath joined together. I would provide individual rooms or small dormitories for most of the women. In general, I would divide the population into smaller groups, according to their habits, capacities, occupations and tastes.

(2) The food should be more varied than has been provided in most large city almshouses. Bread and coffee for breakfast and bread and tea for supper every day in the year, even though the dinner may be good, are not sufficient to meet the requirements of the human body. The serving of the food should not remind one of a penitentiary, long rows of people

sitting down to narrow ledges of tables, the food being served in tin basins, and eaten with an iron spoon. White ware, knives and forks, tables more like those to which people have been accustomed, are inexpensive, and are consistent with self-respect, both on the part of those who use them and those who provide them.

(3) Clothing is a very important matter. How inexpressibly dreary, bedraggled, forlorn, the average almshouse population appears. A considerable degree of uniformity is probably necessary, but taste and attractiveness are not forbidden. Adaptability to the season of the year, and to the particular occupation of the wearer are not impossible. A wise selection as to underclothing is of great importance from the standpoint of health and cleanliness.

(4) Employment in the almshouse can hardly be remunerative, but it is nevertheless of the greatest importance from the point of view of the inmate. Fortunate the almshouse which has a sufficiently large property to enable those of its inmates who are able to do so to have some regular out-of-doors employment each day. Agricultural and horticultural employments seem to me immeasurably more healthful and more useful for the moral well-being of the inmates than in-door occupation, but anything is better than dreary, barren indolence.

All of these things contemplate a life for the aged and infirm which will not be simply waiting for the end, not simply a progressive degeneration of every faculty by disuse, but a life which shall round out the closing years in a more natural way, which shall cause less break between the productive period of life and its decline, which shall afford opportunity for activity and occupation to each according to his capacity, reproducing more nearly the life of a country village than that of a city prison.

One other question, should not our public hospitals exercise an educational influence upon that endless procession of patients, passing in and out of their doors? They are already centers of education for the medical and nursing professions. May they not also educate their patients as to proper standards of cleanliness, order and propriety? Should not every patient leave with

a new sense of the value and comfort of personal cleanliness, and orderly living? The selection, preparation and serving of the food, the management of the housekeeping, the attitude and conduct of the employees, all may be educational factors in the art of living. Well managed sanatoria for consumptives certainly do have precisely this effect upon their patients. A convalescent patient from the Hospital for Consumptives in New York City, who had returned to his home in the tenements and who was replying to an inquiry some time after as to his condition, added that whereas the tenants formerly were in the habit of spitting freely upon the stairways and in the halls of that tenement, now any person so offending was remonstrated with and if a consumptive, was urged, for the protection of his neighbors as well as for his own good, to seek the treatment afforded in a hospital.

Thus we return to our starting point, and endeavor to make that very dependency, produced by disease, a factor in the amelioration of disease-producing conditions.

THE RELATION BETWEEN ACCIDENTS AND DEPENDENCE.

BY REV. D. I. M'MAHON, DIRECTOR OF CATHOLIC CHARITIES, NEW YORK CITY.

In the report of the Committee on "Needy Families in their Homes," the Chairman, Mr. E. J. Butler, has divided the direct causes of poverty into positive and negative; and under this latter division we have sickness, physical or mental, disability, old age and death. By the first of these four we learn from investigation made at various times, and recently under the direction of Homer Folks, Commissioner of New York Charities, that twenty to twenty-five per cent. of all poverty is caused by sickness. This proportion has been reached by taking a large number of cases; but it does not give us the number who are affected by such

sickness. Under the head of sickness and other physical disability, is merged the number of accidents; and since they are not grouped as a separate or distinct cause, we must by some other means find what proportion they bear among the causes of poverty.

Accidents will surely occur and will cause poverty in greater or less degree to some sufferers. For they bring about inability to perform the daily work, they prevent the Sisyphus activity, and block the wheels of the mill of toil. They stop the income while medical attention and necessary expenses eat away the savings. The direct result of accidents in the injury to the individual, represents only a small portion of the suffering which is caused. There is the indirect consequence to the family which is the most frequently dependent upon the injured.

Joined with the economic view of accidents, comes *pari passu* the question of hurtful occupations as these bring about sickness and incapacity for work. In a work published in London under the title, "Dangerous Trades," Thomas Oliver shows in 60 chapters the various hardships, besides accidents, to which many classes of workmen are subjected in their vocations: the fire-damp, lead-poisoning, colic, phosphorus necrosis, etc., etc. In the source or cause there is indeed a difference between accidents and these "occupation diseases," but in their results upon the families, they are practically the same and may be so classed, since the wage-earner is incapacitated, and the remedies against dependence must naturally be similar. The proportion of sickness varies naturally in the different trades, and it would be impracticable to enter into it, as a most limited survey would take much time. What may be said in relation to accidents, will, however, apply *servatis servandis,* to these cases as well.

To determine the extent that accidents bring about dependence, we shall have to find out the figures in relation to accidents in general; and then their source and, as a complement, strive to determine if any remedy can be applied. Inasmuch as no reliable record is kept of accidents, beyond those treated in hospitals, it is not easy to learn the figures or numbers. The police of New York make report of all accidents that are brought to their notice, but their account of 33,529 for the year 1901 is very inaccurate, as it gives only those in which they were obliged to act,

and because it describes as accidents, what the most liberal lexicographer would not dare to so class, e. g., 1267 fits in streets; 849 alcoholism and 384 labor pains. From the United States census of 1900, we learn that while accidents are more frequent to those over 45 years of age, still the average age of fatal accidents is at 33½ years; just when there is likely to be the greatest dependence upon the injured. During the year 1900, there were reported 57,513 deaths from accidents; being one-sixteenth of all deaths, i. e., 6¼ per cent. What part of this large number workingmen formed, we have no direct means of learning.

The Inter-state Commerce Commission reports on an average in large business, that one out of every 31 workmen is injured, and one out of every 318 is killed; and that on rail roads, one out of every 11 is injured, and one out of every 111 is killed.

Scarcely less dangerous than this latter is the loss in coal mining, stone quarrying, bridge building, iron and steel making. The proportion thus shown is about one person killed to ten persons injured, 31 to 318 and 11 to 111.. This compared with the number of deaths given by the census, would give us about 600,000 persons injured. This proportion of one to ten, is only true for the accidents occurring in work, for we have no means of learning the proportion between fatal and non-fatal accidents, which occur outside of work. We are led to believe that these latter are more numerous than those occurring at work, but we know neither the number nor the proportion, and hence cannot rely thereupon.

The three great means to learn their number are the hospital records, the shop records, through the labor bureau, and the accident insurance companies.

By the insurance societies we are told that the United States witness nine million persons injured in accidents every year, killing thereby nearly 60,000 persons. In the solicitude that all should be insured from this destructive power, they figure that 100,000 persons lose their legs or arms, and that 65,000 are permanently disabled. Thus about one-eighth of the whole population, is injured for a short or long time, and that the percentage is higher in the city than in the country.

The four great causes of death are consumption, accidents, pneumonia and heart disease. Of these, they tell us accidents cause more disability than the three others combined. The number killed or injured in our country each year is greater than all the casualties of the Napoleonic wars covering seventeen years. This great number, however, includes all classes of people and chiefly the richer class, as it is made the basis for calculation, by the insurance companies who make these statements. I have consulted the representatives of several of them, but no close figures could be obtained for our present purpose.

I have received only three responses to questions I sent to about twenty hospitals concerning this subject, as the only record they kept of the economic condition of the patients, is whether they are pay or free patients. From St. Francis Hospital of Jersey City, located near the numerous railroad yards, we have the statement that during the past year, they had about 865 admissions for sickness, and 1,444 for accidents, of which 1,286 were from the railroads. Into Bellevue Hospital, the chief free hospital of New York City, during the month of March, 1903, there were 2,502 persons admitted, and of these 266 were for accidents, about 10 per cent.. In the City Hospital on Blackwell's Island, where are sent those cases of accidents which require some time for relief or improvement, during the year 1902, there were 333 cases of accidents in 6,409 admissions, 5 per cent., and 335 similar cases in 4,321 persons (nearly 8 per cent.) admitted to the Metropolitan Hospital at the same place. It will be seen from these different percentages, how little positive data can be gained.

A fatal accident is 2½ times more likely than the loss of a leg or an eye. An eye or a foot are equally in danger. A hand is 1½ times more likely to be injured than an eye, but why should the left hand be 18 times more likely to be injured than the right hand, or why should the left foot be five times more likely to be injured than the right foot?

Novelty is what causes attention, and when the feelings are agitated, every detail is wont to receive the chief attention, while the ordinary daily grind is not regarded. Thus in times of peace the number of working people who are injured in a year, is far

greater than in a war, but there is no public notice given to it. During the recent Spanish War, the number of American soldiers killed in the war was 289, while on the railways on our land alone, in the same period, 1,693 were killed.

While we have no substantial means of finding the real number of our accidents, we can assume that they are not less proportionately, than those in Germany, where because of the compensation acts, most reliable statistics are kept. In 1898 we are told by Dr. Weber, the German accident insurance statistics recorded 7,984 deaths of working people, in the industries within the law requiring compensation for injuries. Some industries, notably the small workshops not employing mechanical power, are not included in the law, but they are not of great numerical importance.

Applying the rate of 55 million population of Germany with the 75 million of our country, we should conclude that over ten thousand American workmen lay down their lives every year in the pursuit of their several vocations. Workmen on the railroads have often declared that "when soldiering is as deadly as switching, international disarmament will be at hand." In the same ratio 68,000 working people are annually disabled in the United States, in greater or less degree, from further work during life; that 55,000 are disabled for a period of more than three months; and that 400,000 more are incapacitated from work for more than three days, but less than three months. So that in the aggregate more than 500,000 persons annually sustain such injury at their work, as to cause their temporary or permanent withdrawal and throw them for support upon funds of their own accumulation, or upon the charity of friends or public, except they have insured themselves against such contingency." These accidents which are here contemplated do not comprise the number which happen in factories without steam power, in street traffic, and in the building trades.

The various hospitals around the metropolitan district, report that more persons are injured from falls, from street traffic, from fires and from buildings, than from those employed in mechanical pursuits. How much greater this number is throughout the country it is difficult to say. It is surely far greater than the ten

thousand killed in the factories, as the number of 60,000 is given by the census and the accident insurance societies. There is also a wide discrepancy between the figures of 500,000 injured in the factories and the nine millions which the insurance claim are injured, for short or long time throughout the whole country.

It is consequently a matter where clear, positive knowledge is not only wanting, but in which there is no present system established through which it can be obtained. In the state of New York the law of 1887 made it the "duty of the agent, superintendent or other persons having charge of a factory or workshop, or of any floor or part thereof, to report in writing to the factory inspector, all accidents or injury done to any person employed in such factory, within 48 hours of the time of the accident, stating as fully as possible the extent and cause of such injury, and the place where the injured person has been sent." The law later gave fuller powers to the factory and labor inspectors, but these claim that reports are given for places employing only about one-half the workmen of the state. The incompleteness of these returns is seen from the statement, that there are recorded only 10 1-3 injuries per 1,000 employes in New York State, whilst in Germany it is 38 1-3 per 1,000. No one familiar with the intense energy and the recklessness of American workmen will believe that such favorable figures can be trusted. For all who have given thought and observation to the subject believe that accidents are more frequent in this country than in Europe. I have quoted fom the New York Labor Statistics, because its writer alone has given deep consideration to the subject, according to the report of the United States Department of Labor.

The number, therefore, cannot be given definitely, but from the computations, we are justified in stating that about a million of the poor people are annually injured, and thus become subjects of charity in some measure or other.

The general causes which bring about accidents may be enumerated as follows: 1, ignorance; 2, carelessness; 3, insufficient lighting; 4, defects of machinery; 5, absence of safeguards. There are many accidents attributed to causes beyond human control, which in ultimate analysis are due to ignorance or carelessness. These factors will always be with us, and in our com-

plex methods of production and commerce, as well as in our larger populations, will ever be productive of accidents. In our large cities the three great sources of accidents, outside that of occupation, are 1, street traffic; 2, falls; 3, burns. The accidents from occupation, great as is their number, are much less numerous than the others. There are many industries as well which abbreviate the lives of those engaged in them, as stated before, so that when the dependence caused by these is added to that from accidents, we are face to face with a large number.

The problem of preventing these accidents, of bringing relief to these injured workmen, and of caring for those dependent upon them during their term of disability has been the subject of much thought in all civilized countries. The remedies are moral, legal, and social. Ignorance must be dispellel in many cases, and temperance must be urged in others where danger is frequent. Vigilance must be set against carelessness and injuries will be averted. The ordinances of the cities will do much if strictly observed to minimize the dangers of street traffic. The safeguarding of machinery by devices has been made obligatory throughout the world with splendid results. "The most familiar example," says Dr. Weber, "of the reduced number of accidents following the introduction of proper safeguards, is found on the railways of this country since the enactment in 1893 of the Federal law compelling the use of automatic couplers; in five years the number of railway employes killed from the coupling and uncoupling of cars was reduced one-half, and the number injured also reduced one-half.

There is a notable amelioration in the proportion of those injured as the years pass. Jules Michel in Reforme Sociale, 1889, says that in the construction of railroads, it was estimated 40 years ago, that one man was killed for every hundred thousand francs expended. Some years later, because of care and precaution, accidents became five times less frequent. In 1880, they were twenty times less. Thus a man was killed for every two millions francs expended, and the same diminution in the number of those injured, which according to his reckoning, was four times that of the killed.

There is a record in the workshops of Rouen, that accidents in eight years were reduced 64 per cent. by means of proper regulations. These safeguards are very numerous and various according to the occupation. The method of prevention is found in the special rules made for providing and maintaining cleanliness, for proper dress, and for obtaining sufficient light and air in the performance of the work. They go into various details and into seeming exaggerations. As industrial pursuits increase in magnitude, so also do the methods of protection. One of the most dangerous occupations, mining, was until 1842, without any protection, so that women and children toiled in the mines at all times previously. It was not until 1855 that safeguards were made obligatory. Until 1833 there was no supervision, no rule or safeguard of any kind made obligatory upon the employers in factories. As the years go on, there is more and more legislation. From 1892 to 1899 rules and regulations were made obligatory by law for 24 different occupations, in order to secure the workmen against danger.

All these means are, however, simply to prevent accidents or to reduce their number. We cannot ever hope to be entirely free from them, and it is even unlikely that they will never be numerous in the whole role of activity. Truly we can banish some diseases, or make much smaller the number of the victims by methods of prevention, and thus lengthen the average of human life. Can we, however, with the constantly increasing phases of activity dam up the number of accidents? As with the poor, we shall have accidents always with us. Hence, beyond the preventative measures, is there any way besides charity, to relieve the distress and dependency brought upon families through accidents? When the accident is clearly the fault of an employer, or the one who causes the injury, the law fixes the responsibility for damages upon such. In the accidents not caused in occupation, the law likewise fixes where the responsibility shall be placed.

In these matters, however, the law's delays are inevitable; the witnesses are hard to find in proper season, and, in the meantime, the injured and those dependent upon him often suffer. The only remedies to provide in such cases are charity, the fraternal

benevolent societies, and the 20 accident insurance companies of this country. "The greatest want of families," says Le Roy in La Reforme Sociale, "is to be assured against the eventualities which can inopportunely dry up their means of existence. The poorer classes resign themselves to the most severe regime provided that their daily bread be guaranteed. On the contrary they fall into discouragement, and become agitated as soon as the security fails." To give this security, accident insurance would seem a necessity if we would keep the injured away from the alms of charity. It is, however, difficult to have all enter into the caring of the future. Devas says, "For the poorest classes these efforts of insurance are inapplicable or unavailing. Those who most need to be provided for either will not or cannot use the forms of association, and the personal insurance that are fitted rather for a sober middle class than for a proletariat."

There is a notable division of opinion as to the part which the state should take in the matter of insuring workmen; but there can be no doubt that some system should be formed by which subsistence can be gained for themselves and families during periods of disability. The increase of production makes this more imperative. With the development of machinery there is more danger beyond the control of workmen who should be protected. The effort to change the law relating to the liability of employers for accidents has caused the insurance phase to seem more obligatory. The common law holds that the employer is responsible only for those accidents, occurring from *his* fault, or from that of his agents, whom the injured party had to obey. It had to be clearly proven that the accident occurred through the master's fault. The workmen, on their side, bore the results due, 1, to accidents of their own making; 2, fortuitous accidents; 3, those caused by fellow employes, and 4, those not legally proven against the employer.

In olden times it was easy enough to determine the degree of responsibility of the master, on account of intimate relations between master and men: but modern conditions have changed them. Little by little has the law swung around to throw the burden of proof of his guiltlessness upon the employer; and then

came the insurance phase called the Employer's Liability, so that by means of stated premiums, he would be freed from all damage or indemnities due from accidents. This measure brings however, but a limited measure of relief and represents only a small share of the workingmen's injuries.

It aims to relieve the employer for the losses rightly charged against him. It has grown rapidly, but rather hinders than helps the injured workingman in his search for indemnity. It is reckoned that 25% of the employers are thus safeguarded. This figure is borne out by a study of 1657 accidents which occurred in New York (vide Bureau of Labor Statistics 1899, p. 577). "For something like 70% of the losses fell upon the employees or their friends or relatives." Again (p. 657) "Of 10,217 accidents reported to one of the Employers' Liability Company, claims for damages were made in 2,467 cases: the claims were admitted in 1,188 cases, and paid after litigation in 139 additional cases, so that the total was 1327 or 13% of 10,217.

To the two clear causes, fault of employer — fault of employed, comes the third due to the industry itself, called the professional risk. According to German statistics cited by M. Duche in the Chamber of Deputies, out of 100 accidents, 12 would be the fault of the employer, 20 would be the fault of the employed, and 68 from fortuitous or unknown causes. As soon as this became generally known, naturally came the query why this burden of 68% should be upon the shoulders of the workmen alone. The industry caused them, and upon the industry should they fall. According to the views presented, the indemnity caused by these should be reckoned an item in the cost of production, and be borne by the employer, just as much as the breaking of the machinery, or fire, or loss in any way. Moreover in as far as preventable, they depend upon the employer, and upon him it was felt should fall the responsibility for all accidents not clearly the fault of the injured party. Thus the employer ought to secure himself against such indemnifications as he did for fire and such losses.

Where this insurance has been made obligatory on the employer, it has been asked whence this extra expense shall be obtained. One would place it upon the finished product, but this

should be slowly done. "It is indisputable that the burden originally imposed upon the employers will rest there for a time: but in most industries it seems likely, that they will shortly be able to advance prices sufficiently to recoup themselves, precisely as they do on the occasion of an advance in the price of raw materials."

In Europe the governments have been forced to enter into the question. Thus the German Empire, by a series of laws from 1883 to 1889, made insurance compulsory against accidents, sickness and invalidity for fourteen million workmen. Austria, Denmark, Switzerland, as well as France and Italy, have in some measure followed the lead. In England, the Workmen's Compensation Act, which was strongly opposed by many employers, fearing it would ruin industry, has had no effect in that direction. Although, theoretically, increasing their liability, it has made them less out of pocket than formerly. Certain trades only are included in the Act, and since 1898 it matters little how the accident was caused, as the employer is held liable. These trades are railways, factories, docks, laundries, mines, buildings with machinery. Compensation of one-half the weekly wages is given only after two weeks disability. After six months, the sum can be compounded into a lump sum. In case of death an indemnity equal to three years wages is given.

The necessity for measures of insurance against accidents is more pressing in this country than in Europe, for accidents are more frequent, and indemnification by the employer is not less imperative; but public opinion has not yet reached that stage. On railroads, more than in any other industry, has accident insurance been carried out. At the present time, about one-seventh of the railroad employees in our land, are joined to this insurance feature, and as it is only about 10 years in existence, it has had fair success, and its influence will be felt in the large industries. There are quasi-insurance features connected with a very large number of the trade societies, but no comprehensive investigation has as yet been made thereof. If masters and men could be made to see the advantage of insurance against accidents, it would little by little become adopted.

Special circumstances may justify compulsory insurance, but it should be carefully introduced, as it would assuredly cause a

diminution of private savings, and of the institutions for them. These savings elevate a notable number of working families, and cause progress in our society.

What Tacitus said of the evil of State assistance, as causing industry to languish, strife and discontent to arise, and the nation to fail, is true to-day. (Si quantum pauperum est venire huc aut liberis suis petere pecunias coeperit, singuli nunquam exsatiabuntur, respublica deficiet. . . . Languescet industria, intendentur accordia, si nullus ex se metus aut spes, et securi omnes aliena subsidia exspectabunt, sibi ignavi, nobis graves). Annales II 38. This is shown in Germany where the accidents since the insurance regime, increased 47%, while the workmen increased only 10%. The fatal accidents decreased considerably and so did the lighter accidents, in which the workmen had to pay two-thirds.* It is the old story of the Out-door Poor Law. Individual foresight is much weakened by this assumption of the State's care, and the system will not accord with our views of limiting the area of the state in individual concerns. The advantages however, are great, and as abuses are eliminated it may become general. Charity, true charity, must aid until an enlightened public opinion shall bring all into some form of insurance against accidents .

* The effect is shown in Germany by taking a comparative statement of the cases of death and incapacity of work, between 1881 and 1886, the last date is that of insurance. It is seen that the industry is even less dangerous, as the proportion of death has lowered from 101.4 to 86.3 per 100,000 workmen: but the case of total incapacity, i. e., accidents which permit large sums of indemnity, arose from 18.8 per 100,000 workmen to 54.7 threefold. As to partial and permanent incapacity, the pensions of the year 1881, was 67 for 100,000, but in 1886 they rose to 116, nearly double. In 1887 these results were accentuated greatly: In 1886, out of 3,500,000 insured workmen, there were 10,540 accidents with indemnity. In 1887 out of 3,800,000 insured workmen, there were 17,100 accidents with indemnity. Thus the insured workmen increased about 10 per cent., the accidents about 47 per cent. Still further instruction will be gained by learning the kinds; light accidents, i. e., not keeping persons from work 13 weeks have diminished, as the workmen pay two-thirds of the expenses. On the contrary, graver accidents i. e., causing death or disability for work, either permanently, or more than six months, have increased 28½ per cent. in the service of the state, and 61 and two-thirds per cent. in corporations. These accidents must be indemnified entirely by the employer. As is seen workmen strove to be considered as disabled for a long time.

THE TENEMENT HOUSE PROBLEM IN CINCINNATI.

BY C. M. HUBBARD, SECRETARY ASSOCIATED CHARITIES, CINCINNATI.

The tenement house problem in Cincinnati is due to the usual causes, namely, the concentration of working men in the neighborhood of the manufacturing and business centers; the failure to keep pace with the growth of the population in methods of sanitation; the shifting of the residence and business districts; as a result of which houses are converted into tenements that are poorly adapted for that use; and the deterioration of buildings from age.

Cincinnati is built in a narrow valley lying between the river and high hills which prevented it from spreading out as cities usually do and which caused the early construction of the three and four story tenement houses and gives Cincinnati the unenviable distinction of being the only city in Ohio that has a tenement house problem. But the introduction of the cable and electric street cars greatly relieved the situation by enabling people to live on the hilltops and in the more distant suburbs. In recent years the situation has been improved still more by a remarkable exodus of large manufacturing plants from the down town districts to the suburbs.

The most prevalent type of house for the working people is the three or four story house with side entrance and stairway in the middle, with two rooms in front, two in the rear, water in the kitchen or hallway, and the water closets on the first and third floors or else in the yard or court. These houses are for the most part well kept and comfortable.

There are not many block tenements, but rear tenements, and none of the dumb bell variety so common in New York.

One of the characteristics, and, perhaps, I might say, spectacular phases of the problem, is the old tumble down and decayed frame houses. Most of them have enough light and air, but their general deterioration and lack of sanitary conveniences render them undesirable places to live.

The building inspector and health officer have done much

to get rid of these old houses. Whole rows of them have been condemned and torn down at a time.

Some of the large block tenements have not been constructed with due regard to light and air and should be remodeled. But the number of houses of this type is small and so few of them are really bad that they can hardly be said to constitute a prominent factor in the problem.

There are some characteristic faults in the narrow houses built upon single lots. Some of them do not have sufficient courts and yards and a good many of them have been built so close together that the lower floors are gloomy. This, I think, may be said to be one of the most prevalent faults in construction with which we have to contend. The present ordinances permit all of a corner lot or ninety per cent of the ground space of an in-lot to be covered.

Two years ago the Associated Charities conducted an investigation into the conditions in eight of the worst tenement house districts it could select. Practically every family was visited. It may be interesting to know that one and one-half per cent of the apartments were found to be very dark, two per cent dark, and 43 per cent gloomy.

By all odds the most prevalent fault in the tenement house situation in Cincinnati and perhaps the most serious factor in the problem is the inadequate, unsanitary and neglected water closets.

Dr. E. R. L. Gould emphasizes the statement that the two things that should always be insisted upon as being of the utmost importance in the tenement house construction, are, ample toilet facilities, and a good court or yard.

There ought to be a water closet within each apartment. If this is found impractiable in one or two room apartments, there should in any case be a separate closet for each two families in which each family should have its own separate compartment.

There are but few tenement houses in Cincinnati that come up to this standard. Generally when the closets are located in the houses, they are on the first and third floors and consist each of a single compartment, which must be used by from two

to four or even a larger number of families. In a great many cases the closets or vaults are located in the courts or yards to which all of the families in the building must resort. With these limited accommodations it is exceedingly difficult to maintain a proper standard of cleanliness. Too often these places become not only the source of great discomfort but a serious menace to the health of the tenants.

In the course of the investigation above referred to it was found that in a district containing eighty-one houses, over fifty per cent of the water closets were out of repair or otherwise neglected.

With regard to various other types of tenement house evils, it may be said that there is hardly one of them but that can be found somewhere in the city in a more or less aggravated form, yet none of them are so prevalent as to constitute a characteristic phase of the problem. The condition, on the whole, is one that demands vigorous action.

A new tenement house code is needed. The existing laws are, for the most part, vague and indefinite. They confer wide discretionary powers upon the health officer and building inspector, but the absence of specifications renders it difficult for them to enforce their decisions. There is no distinction made in the law between existing tenement houses and those to be constructed. As an example of the indefinite nature of the present Cincinnati ordinances, we may refer to the fact that fire escapes is disposed of in tweny lines. The New York law devotes three pages to the same subject.

An illustration of the indefinite nature of many of the city ordinances is seen in the following: "Every room in such building used as a sleeping or living room, shall be properly lighted and ventilated." The ordinances pertaining to tenement houses are so vague and meager that they can hardly be said to constitute a code at all.

No attempt has been made to secure new legislation. It was not thought advisable to secure relief through the state legislature as it was foreseen that special legislation would be declared unconstitutional. Shortly after the close of the regular session of the legislature a little over a year ago, a decision of

the supreme court declared all that great body of special laws under which most of the cities of the state were governed, unconstitutional, and a special session of the legislature was called to enact a new general municipal code. Under its provisions the framing of a tenement house law will be in the hands of the city council. This body has just been installed.

So far as possible it seems to me that it is wise to adopt the policy of co-operation with the city officials in any such movement as tenement house reform. The enforcement of whatever laws there may be is in their hands. When therefore the Associated Charities decided to make the inquiry into the tenement house conditions, the health department was made acquainted with the plans and a sanitary policeman was detailed to accompany the investigator.

The Health Officer has manifested a willingness to do all in his power to correct such abuses as were reported to him. But the fact, already well known to all who have studied tenement house reform, became increasingly evident as time went on, that the laws cannot be well enforced without constant and systematic inspection. The number of sanitary policemen has been too small to enable this inspection to be made by the health department itself. A number of benevolent institutions of the city decided, therefore, to organize themselves into a bureau of inspection. Each of them selected the district most closely identified with its work and with which it was most familiar. A manual was prepared for the guidance of its inspectors. A record is kept of all houses reported and subsequent inspection enables the visitor to note the progress of the improvements and to urge the health department up to the full performance of its duty.

The societies taking part in this inspection are, the United Jewish Charities, the Union Bethel, the Elizabeth Gamble Deaconess Home, the Glenn Industrial Home, the Menonite Mission, and the Associated Charities. In addition, several church visitors have agreed to report all unsanitary conditions coming under their observation in the ordinary course of their work.

This systematic inspection will obtain specific information concerning tenement house evils, aid in the enforcement of the law, indicate what new legislation is needed, and arouse public

sentiment to aid in its passage. It will then be able in like manner to assist in enforcing the new laws.

Nothing has been done in Cincinnati in the way of constructing improved tenements on a large scale. Two or three houses conforming more or less to the best standard have been built by private individuals. The subject is receiving consideration at the hands of a number of men of large means, and one of the best known architects in the city, who is familiar with the movement and interested in the humanitarian aspects of it, is engaged in drawing plans and making estimates. It is hoped that there may be tangible results.

A start has been made in those neighborhood improvements that help to make tenement house life more healthful and attractive. The Cincinnati Woman's Club maintains three public playgrounds in densely populated neighborhoods and has established free shower baths for children at two of them. One or two more playgrounds will probably be opened up by them during the coming summer.

Two years ago the Union Bethel opened up a very complete public bath in its building on the Public Landing which has proven very popular and is now practically self-supporting. During the coming year a building formerly used as a police station will be converted into a modern public bath at a cost of $22,000 and operated by the city. Others will probably follow.

The establishment of small parks in tenement house neighborhoods has now become an assured fact. Mayor Fleischmann, who, as a private individual, has been a liberal supporter of various philanthropic movements, advocated an appropriation for this purpose before the commercial bodies with which he is identified, and urged the measure upon the city board of legislation. Through his influence, more than that of any other person, perhaps, the resolution was passed appropriating one million dollars for that purpose.

Mayor Fleischmann has just been re-elected to serve under the new Municipal Code. It is therefore exceedingly gratifying to read the following paragraph in his message issued a few days ago:

"The efficiency of the department of inspection of buildings is materially impaired by reason of the present obsolete building ordinance under which it is operated. I recommend that the ordinance now in existence be carefully and extensively revised at an early date, and such regulations substituted, provided and adopted as will meet with modern requirements. Special consideration should be given to the construction of tenement, apartment and lodging houses, patterning after, and improving upon, if possible, the laws recently enacted in the cities of New York and Chicago, which are pronounced by experts to be models and the best regulations extant. This department should be empowered to remove buildings or other structures which are unsafe, or which have been abandoned and neglected by their owners until they have become nuisances, after the owners have been duly notified and have refused to take any action. A fund for this purpose should be provided to enable prompt and summary measures to be taken where the public safety requires immediate action."

Within the last few days a movement has been started by the Monday Evening Club to secure the co-operation of the various commercial clubs with the benevolent and charitable institutions in urging upon the new city council the passage of a tenement house code.

There is reason to believe that the time is not far distant when Cincinnati will be in the front rank of those cities that have made provision for the happiness and comfort of her working people who live in tenement houses.

IX.

State Supervision and Administration.

THE REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE.

To make a valuable report on this subject would require the constant investigation of one man for an entire year. To speak with any degree of accuracy he would need to examine the history of charities in every state in the Union, and to inquire into the present conditions and present methods of administration. Nor could he trust to official reports nor to the opinion of officers, experts, or citizens alone. To speak with authority he must investigate for himself the actual conditions of affairs and make personal observation of what is actually being done. This the Committee has not done and therefore their report will be like similar reports of this kind, — a series of statements based on general investigation and observation, as recorded in the opinions of the ablest men and women of the foremost states of the Union, together with certain general knowledge of the actual results of various systems of administration.

In the progress of evolution of charitable and penal affairs in the United States there are certain questions that seem practically settled, — that is, conclusions have been reached by the consensus of opinion of both practical workers and theorists on the results of practical work. In the first place it is thoroughly understood that charity is a semi-public function and that administration may have a large amount of cold machinery working with precision with the humanitarian idea entirely eliminated. No matter how perfect and successful the administration of charities may be, if the element of human sympathy has departed therefrom, if humanitarianism is subordinated to mere public function of service it is no longer charity but politics. Hence, whatever is done to perfect the machinery of state supervision and administration the humanitarian idea must not be eliminated.

Again, it is generally conceded for the sake of unity, effectiveness, and publicity that state supervision of some kind is absolutely necessary for the accomplishment of the great ends by which charitable and penal institutions are established. In saying this the Committee would recognize the worth of private endeavor and the use of private capital in building up private institutions for the care of dependents and defectives. But even with this recognition it must insist that it was long years of inadequacy and confusion and, to a certain extent, inefficiency of these private institutions that caused the state to take upon itself the administration of public charities.

It is also pretty well settled that subsidies should not be granted by the state to private institutions. But this seems no longer to be a matter of opinion but a matter of fact, — a matter of historical evolution, that in the modern development of government and society the funds collected from the people by general taxation should not be devoted to the specific service of an institution created and controlled by a few people, but that public and private enterprises should be kept entirely separate.

The separation of church and state is an accomplished fact and on the same theory of human rights a separation of private institutions from public institutions ought to be accomplished. Not only is it a question of right but a question of practical expediency, for the giving of public funds to private enterprises, in the long run, leads not only to improper use of the people's money but also leads to the inefficiency and defectiveness, and sometimes impotency of the institutions. In our attempt to cure the mendicancy of individuals why make mendicants of institutions and thus prostrate the noble work they were intended to perform? Whatever apparent need there may have been for such action in the past there is now no reason, no cause, no rational demand for the subsidizing of private institutions with public funds.

And finally, all private charitable institutions working under the charter of the state should be under state supervision. Can we not hold to a universal principle that has been established by degrees through the constitutional development of our country? If the state gives a charter to any group of people for a specific purpose the state should guarantee that such institution should

work for the highest public welfare and not against it. And this principle is so universal that it would include educational, charitable and industrial institutions of the country. Too long already has dominated the idea that under the cover of a charter individuals might do as they pleased regardless of the well-being of the state and the community. But at last the accountability of private corporations to the state has been recognized as a just and legal right. Hence, there is nothing unjust or unfair in general laws for the regulating of private institutions nor against the inspection or supervision of the same.

But the great unsettled question before us within the range of the work of the Committee refers to the method of state supervision. Wherever state supervision exists at all there are several methods of dealing with the charitable and penal institutions of the state. In the first place, each institution may have a separate board of trustees or commissioners which reports directly to the legislature and being accountable only to this body and to the governor, who usually has the appointing power. The legislative committee, the newspapers and public opinion in general are the only supervisors of these local boards. Quite a large number of the states of the Union still hold to this somewhat primitive method.

A second method still remaining in some states is a board elected by the people for the administration of the funds appropriated for the support of institutions of the state. This central board is largely perfunctory as the real burden of administration falls upon the superintendent or head of the institution.

The third method, still more modern than either of the others, is in the form of a state board of charities with advisory powers. Under this system the local boards of institutions are still retained. This is sometimes called the Ohio system, although it was started in New York as early as 1865. Perhaps the ideas of administration involved in this system were more widely extended in the various states than any other system.

And finally, the most modern of all methods of administration is the state board of control, composed of three or five men, appointed by the governor, who devote their whole time to

the administrative details of the state charitable and penal institutions. Outside of these four main methods of administration there has developed a fifth in which there is a division of the work under different boards, — as for instance, in Massachusetts there are the State Board of Charities; State Prison Commission, and State Lunacy Commission. Also in New York a State Lunacy Commission and a State Prison Commission divide the work with the State Board of Charities. There have been many advocates of the different systems and undoubtedly there is good in each.

The particular controversy as it exists today is between the state board of control and the advisory board of state charities. Some confusion has arisen in this controversy because of the lack of a common point of view in the discussion. In some instances people have considered administration pure and simple, in other instances they have considered humanitarianism or charity pure and simple. Arguing from these two separate standpoints it would appear that the state board of control has the opportunity of making the most perfect system of administration possible, while the advisory board of state charities is better calculated to promote the humanitarian interest of the wards of the state.

But suppose an independent investigator should start out to find which was the better system. If he were to take the example of Iowa he would find a mighty transformation had taken place and without doubt the new system under the State Board of Control is far better than the old regime. But he has not proved that an advisory board of state charities would not have done as well nor even better had that system been adopted for the unification of the charities of the state. Nor is it altogether certain that in Indiana, where the advisory board of state charities has been so successful, that a state board of control would not have done as well. And why? Simply because the success or failure of charitable work in any state depends far more upon the actual condition of affairs and the men who have charge of the charitable and penal affairs of the state than upon any mere method that may be adopted.

On account of the uneven historical development of the state the conditions vary to such an extent that one method might work well in one state and be a failure in another. The fact is that the conscientious and intelligent work of the men in power makes the success of the administration of the charitable and penal institutions of the state. And perhaps the key of the whole situtation, no matter what system is adopted, is in having an intelligent and conscientious governor, who, regardless of political pressure, will select the ablest and most adaptable men of the whole state for members of the board or superintendents of the institutions. And if the governor of the state be lacking in these qualities there is no system or method yet adopted that can cover up or remedy the weakness engendered by this defect. Some systems undoubtedly are better than others, but it appears that more is dependent upon the right choice of men than upon any system.

Such being the condition the comparison of various methods used in the several states is invidious unless it can be shown definitely what the conditions were previously to the adoption of the method in vogue, and also what the exact results of the different methods are. To judge accurately of the relative value of two methods they must have exactly the same conditions in each. Owing to the difference of development in the various states in the Union no two states have exactly the same social status. Customs are varied, institutions are different, the views of the public in regard to the management of charitable and penal institutions vary and the results of work are consequently different in character. Hence it appears that if we could ascertain the exact results in the several states we could not trace these results to the method alone but to previous conditions as well. It must be assumed, therefore, that one method is better than another under certain circumstances, and therefore what is good for one state may not be good for another. But in general we can reach a conclusion from the study of fundamental principles based on the things to be gained and determined, as to which is the ideal system, and this system can be used as far as it is applicable to local conditions.

The system of public control, so far as the economy of general administration is concerned, is certainly effective. It is not

a system calculated to get along on a small amount of funds but it is well calculated to give the public the full benefit of the monies expended. The enormous amount of administrative responsibility thrown upon it permits comparatively little attention to be directed to humanitarian effort or real charity. It permits little time to be devoted to the education of the public concerning charitable institutions. The whole subject of charity is delegated to the state board and the board attends to it all and relieves the public from the care, the thought, and the responsibility in the whole matter. On the other hand, the supervisory board of state charities is strong on the humanitarian side, nor is it necessarily deficient on the administrative side, for if the local boards, each taking an interest in its own institution, are well constituted there is no need of waste.

Perhaps the Roman Senate stands out as the most powerful body in the whole history of government. Yet legally it was neither judicial, legislative, or executive. It simply had a right to advise, but so sure was that advice and so strong its influence that it acted as if it had absolute authority. Certainly some of the elements of strength of this old Roman Senate are found in the advisory board. The people of the state recognize that the members of this board have only one thought, and that the perfection of the method of dealing with the wards of the state. It would seem likely that people would take such a position for the mere love of the work and possibly for the honor it brings. On the other hand there is a possibility that a person might accept a position on the board of control for the salary it yields and for the opportunity it furnishes for running one wing of the political machinery of the state.

From a scientific standpoint ideal supervision would consist of a division of work based upon the nature of institutions. There is an advantage in a state lunacy commission that gives all of its attention to the various forms of insanity and the cure of the same. The subjects of penology, criminology, prison administration, the handling of various forms of defectives as of blind, deaf, dumb, epileptics and insane, and the various groups of dependents such as paupers and dependent children, are too great for mastery by one man or by any one commission. Therefore, the chairman

of this committee would advocate at least the grouping of institutions according to their nature and the creation of two or more commissions or boards for the control of these. For instance, in the state of Kansas he would place the school for the blind and the school for the deaf and dumb under the supervision of a state superintendent of public instruction, each institution having a local board for the administration of the finances of the institution. In the progress of educational institutions of this kind there is no reason why they should longer be classed as charities. Then he would take all of the penal and correctional institutions, as the penitentiary, the reformatory, the industrial school and the jails and put them under a supervisory board, each institution retaining its local board. Then he would classify the institutions for the insane, the feeble-minded, epileptics, and all other purely charitable agencies under another supervisory board. These supervisory boards should be chosen for their fitness and not only should be free with their advice to superintendents and local boards but also to report to the governor and legislature and stand between the institutions and the people.

Other states might require even more boards of supervision. People will say in opposition to this that you are increasing the number of boards and multiplying machinery, which will lead to confusion. But it can be said that wherever confusion exists the surest way out is to find a basic principle and follow it until success appears. At any rate, all must agree that the work of supervision of all of the institutions of a great state is too difficult a task to allow inefficiency in the members of the board. And surely if people are going to supervise they ought to be masters and not followers. By knowledge, by intelligence, by study, and experience they ought to be superior to those whom they attempt to supervise.

The report of this committee cannot enter into the practical details of the administration of various institutions but will simply suggest that with the right kinds of superintendents of these various institutions, with sufficient freedom of action a tolerable degree of success will be assured. But without wise efficient superintendents no institution can be a success no matter what machinery of supervision you may have. Also there is a

power in a local board which takes pride in the institution of the neighborhood. In this an appeal is made to the old principle of local self-government which has been the foundation of the republic and is to-day the most important phase of our political life. There is some danger that they will forget that the institution for which they work belongs to the state and therefore their policy will be somewhat narrow. But this can be overcome by almost any kind of efficient supervision.

In closing this report the committee would like to offer the following summary, much of which has been reported by other committees and all of which has been discussed in the previous meetings of the Conference:

First. That state supervision of charitable and penal affairs is essential.

Second. That no state subsidies should be granted to private institutions.

Third. That private charitable institutions should be under the inspection and inoffensive regulation of the state in order to promote efficiency and unity in the care of the state's wards.

Fourth. That the committee recognize merits in both the state board of control and the supervisory board of state charities, that each has its own peculiar advantages and that whether one or the other is better depends somewhat upon the conditions of society, of government, and the status of charitable and penal affairs. And the committee would emphasize the advantages of the supervisory board of state charities in the perpetuation of humanitarian ideas and practice, that is in the perpetuation of real charity.

Fifth. The committee would urge the elimination of all forms of partisan politics from charitable and penal affairs and the placing of all institutions on a purely scientific basis. This method would seek the best men for the place regardless of what state or nation he comes from. This would introduce the merit system among all the officers and employees.

Sixth. Where the work of state supervision is too great for one board the committee would recommend the division of the work among at least two advisory boards, or in the case of the

board of control that a separate agency for scientific investigation and propaganda be instituted, and in either case a public accountant be appointed by the Governor for the especial supervision of the financial accounts of the various institutions.

Prof. Frank W. Blackmar, *Chairman,*
George S. Wilson,
John Cownie,
Prof. George F. Canfield,
Prof. D. C. Brown,
Rev. Francis A. Foy,
Michael Heymann,
Prof. Charles R. Henderson,
Rutherford H. Platt,
L. C. Storrs,
Mrs. Lillian C. Streeter,
George B. Davis,
Thomas T. Tynan.

Note.— This report was written by the chairman of the committee in consultation with every member of the committee through correspondence. The chairman regrets that it was not possible to give each member of the committee an opportunity to see the report and to sign it before it went to press. Each member, therefore, has a right to criticise the report and bring in a minority report if he so chooses.

THE APPOINTING POWER OF BOARDS.

BY RUTHERFORD H. PLATT.

In assigning this topic for consideration, the purpose, as I understand it, is to determine, or, at least, to discuss the question, in whom should the power of appointment be vested—the appointment of superintendents and other officers of state institutions. Perhaps it was intended more particularly to illustrate

the difference between the functions of the board of state charities and those of local boards.

One's view of such a question, or answer to it, is likely to be strongly influenced by the rule or method prevailing in his own state, especially where such method has worked well, and has not been a subject for criticism.

Looked at in this way, my impulse is to treat this topic in a style about as brief as the well-known chapter, "on snakes in Ireland," which, as you recall, exhausted the subject in these six words, "there are no snakes in Ireland."

In Ohio the board of state charities has never had any appointing power in connection with the state institutions and has never wanted any such power. And for two reasons, one of which is found in the purpose which the local boards are intended to serve, and the other in the purpose, for which, in our view of the matter, the central state board exists.

When the first state board of charities was provided for by statute and organized, between thirty and forty years ago, each institution was managed by its own board of trustees. The local boards ante-date the central board. The affairs of each institution were committed to its own board, and in that board were vested the requisite general powers, including the power of appointment.

I believe it is true generally in those states where local boards have been continued, that their powers, including the power of appointment, have been left undisturbed. There has been no transfer of those powers to the state board of charities.

State boards of charities were not created to supersede the local boards, and assume their work of managing the state institutions. The central board, which in some states, as in Iowa, has been created to supersede the local boards, is something quite different. The present question could not arise there. The board of control necessarily assumes all administrative powers; and such power of appointment as was before vested in local boards naturally belongs to it.

The chairman of this committee in his report has well stated some advantages which may be peculiar to the board of control—the one central board to manage all the state institutions. He

has also indicated some considerations touching the comparative merits of the two systems. Those considerations are not embraced in the present topic, though some of the arguments in support of the board of control might be pertinent in favor of vesting in any central board the power of appointment.

In considering the present question we are assuming that there are the local boards as well as the central board, in either of which it would be, theoretically, possible to vest such power.

The purpose which the local boards are intended to serve is well understood.

The responsibility for the affairs of each institution rests primarily with the board of trustees of that institution.

If the superintendent or other chief executive officer, performs well the duties of his office, so that his institution becomes a proper subject for pride and satisfaction, this redounds to the credit of the board charged with the management of that institution. On the other hand, if he fail to meet the requirements in any conspicuous degree, this tends to bring discredit on his board of managers.

It is a self-evident proposition that a principal should have the right to select his own agent. If a board of managers do not select their executive officer this will weaken their sense of responsibility, and tend toward the demoralization or inefficiency sure to come into public affairs, or any other affairs, the responsibility for which is not clearly fixed, or is not placed where it belongs.

Then, as to the purpose for which boards of state charities exist, administrative functions are at variance with the true purpose of those boards.

The Ohio statute may be quoted as indicating the functions of the state board of charities. The members of that board "shall investigate the whole system of public charities and correctional institutions of the state and examine into the conditions and management thereof." The officers are required to furnish information and statistics called for, and for which the board may prescribe forms. All plans for jails, work houses, and all state institutions must be submitted to them for criticism and approval. It is their duty when ordered by the governor, to con-

duct a special investigation of any penal, charitable or reformatory institution of the state, with power to send for persons and papers and administer oaths.

This subject of the proper functions of boards of state charities was fully considered and ably presented by a committee of the National Conference more than twenty years ago. The report of the committee, prepared by General Brinkerhoff, will be found in the report of the proceedings of the Boston conference of 1881. And the following on the same subject, from the same authoritative source, will be found in the volume containing the proceedings of the Madison conference of 1882.

"The duties of the board of state charities as I conceive them, are to study systems, visit institutions not only at home, but abroad, and in all possible ways keep themselves abreast of the best thought and best experience of the world, and then bring the information thus gathered to bear upon the institutions, the legislature and the people of our own state.

"The moment you impose executive powers upon a board you will lower its character, for at once, to that extent, it ceases to be a disinterested body. . . . With offices to bestow, and contracts to award, and salaries to be received, the members of a board of state charities will be selected for party service rather than for devotion to the duties required."

Just one other suggestion which seems pertinent to this subject. The appointing power, wherever it is vested, should be guarded against encroachment. It should be exercised by the board or officer in whom it is vested, free from irresponsible dictation.

The system, as generally prescribed by statute, is logical and consistent. The Governor appoints the trustees of state institutions and looks to them for a satisfactory administration of the institutions. The trustees appoint their chief executive officer and look to him for desired results. The chief executive officer, usually called superintendent, selects, subject to the approval of his board, the assistants and subordinates for whose efficiency he is directly responsible. The Governor, if wise, will not attempt to dictate appointments to be made by his boards;

and the boards will not ignore the part allotted to the superintendent in the selection of the subordinate officials.

The evil of political appointments, for partisan services, will be unknown, if each board or authority preserve intact the appointing power committed to it, and exercise that power with a proper sense of personal responsibility.

CONDITIONS AND NEEDS OF THE SOUTH.

BY MICHAEL HEYMANN, OF NEW ORLEANS, LA.

With one or two exceptions the southern states have no state board of charities and corrections. The charitable and penal institutions are governed by boards of control. The superintendents of these institutions are appointed by the governor, generally through political influence. A great many private institutions are sectarian and supported by subscriptions of the members of their respective churches: hence, there is no uniformity in the system of education of the dependent child.

Our legislation is incomplete. Very few of our legislators care for the methods of charities and corrections; they believe in letting well enough alone. You often hear them say: "Our fathers were happy and were getting along well without your new-fangled doings."

After taking care of the abandoned or wayward child in splendidly equipped institutions, at the critical age of 14 or 15, especially critical for girls, we turn them adrift to fight the battles of life — forgetting that these children are the state's wards, that they are our children, and that we are responsible to God and to our country if their life becomes vicious or criminal.

The remedy for this evil, or rather neglect is the creation of manual training schools for all poor children, girls as well as boys, both dependent and vicious, fitting them to earn an honest living.

From my experience the boys and girls' reformatories give far more practical education to the child than our public schools or our best orphan asylums. The reason for this can easily be understood when we know that the superintendents of the reformatories are chosen among the best educators; men and women of brains and heart.

I shall never forget the impression made upon me at the sight of 500 splendidly uniformed boys in the Reformatory in Indiana, a state that understands how to raise her children. My earnest prayer is, that every southern state will have in the near future such institutions for her poor children, and one of the most serious problems in charities and corrections will be solved. In a few years the number of criminals will be less, a better state of morality will come about, and the states will save money enough to support all the reformatories they may establish.

The transplanting and placing in good families of children exposed to moral danger is now understood and practiced in New Orleans. We have the good fortune of having an excellent man, an ex-employee of the Gerry Society in New York, who understands his business, and who will surely succeed in saving a mass of unfortunate children that would otherwise be lost to society and added to the number of vicious and criminals in our slums. The president of our society, J. J. McLoughlin, is full of enthusiasm and deserves the thanks of the community. This system of childsaving should be spread in the whole south. It is to our discredit that in our parishes (counties) very little is known of organized charities. Missionaries should be sent out to lecture about our work. I know only of one town in the whole state of Louisiana where there is an organized society. Probably the same state of affairs exists in most of the southern states.

In our state only one town, Franklin, La., has a free kindergarten spreading the noble ideas of Froebel to develop simultaneously the head, hand and heart, thus laying the foundation of a good physical and moral education of the child. Gen. Roeleff Brinkerhoff in all his writings and addresses before national and international charity and prison congresses always advocates free kindergartens. When two years ago a bill was introduced in Louisiana in favor of the indeterminate sentence, one of our

young senators exclaimed: "We want no kindergartens in our courts and prisons." Yes, you need them, my young friend, not only in the slums and public schools, but also in your legislative halls.

The prison question in the south, with the exception of boys' and girls' reformatories, belongs more especially to the National Prison Association, where I hope to bring it up next fall: it is important enough for a distinct report. Since the New Orleans special meeting of the National Prison Association we have made some progress which is seen in the abolition of the convict slave system, in the establishment of a juvenile court modified a law creating a boys' reformatory, and the building of a modern county jail in New Orleans.

To recapitulate, the needs of the south are:

First: free kindergartens.

Second: manual training schools.

Third: state care of dependents, defectives and criminals.

Fourth: organized charities in all cities and towns.

Fifth: the placing out in families of all morally abandoned children.

Sixth: reformatories for boys, girls and youths.

Seventh: state conferences of charities and corrections.

Eighth: new humane methods of dealing with prisoners.

Ninth: and above all, state boards of charities and corrections.

Tenth: a penal code, embodying the principles of Edward Livingston.

X

County and Municipal Institutions.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE.

BY C. L. STONAKER, CHAIRMAN.

The published reports of this conference bear witness that the subjects reviewed by this committee have received considerable attention in the past. At this time, therefore, your committee wish to report briefly and, without going exhaustively into the whole field covered by the title of this standing committee or any portion thereof, to direct your thoughtful attention to some features included in this general subject which may be of practical value to all persons engaged in active service either in the field of public or private charities.

The growth of the public spirit in favor of a better administration of all forms of aid and relief, care and treatment, has resulted in a varied and heterogeneous order in the states, as well as in counties and municipalities throughout the land.

In the broad field of public charities, there is no distinct line of separation between state, county and municipal charities. One state undertakes the exclusive care of one class of beneficiaries. Another assists by legislative appropriations the counties, municipalities and even private organizations to carry on legitimate forms of charitable enterprises. In turn, counties and municipalities contribute to the support of state institutions, maintain institutions of their own or give financial aid to private charities. Any effort to analyze or classify these conditions in this country, therefore, can be of little avail further than to show in synopsis or tabular form just what is being done in the several states, for purposes of comparison or suggestion.

The nearest approach to a distinct line of separation between county and municipality, on the one hand, and the state on the

other, is in the public corrections. And yet, even here, the separation is not uniformly observed. Crime is clearly denominated by law an offense against the state and misdemeanor an offense against the peace and good order of the county and the municipality. Prisoners convicted of crime are placed in the care and custody of the state for correction and punishment, and offenders against the peace and good order of the municipality are treated according to county and municipal laws by the authorities and the officers of these civic sub-divisions of the states. Throughout the country, therefore, the state care and management of prisons and reformatories of all kinds, where they exist, is well established and accepted, and the entire support and management is at the expense of the state, the exceptions being some states where reformatory institutions under private control receive financial support from the state, and in Pennsylvania, where the counties pay a per diem rate for the maintenance of all state prisoners convicted from the respective counties. In a few states, also, the leasing or letting by contract to private persons of the custody and care of petty and state prisoners still exist, but, happily, this method is fast disappearing and will in a few years become obsolete.

Our county jails are under the direct and exclusive control and management of county officials, municipal and town jails and lockups under police power, while in a number of larger cities and counties, workhouses have been established. So unsatisfactory are conditions in county and municipal corrections, however, that strong reasons exist for the placing of these institutions under some form of state supervision and control.

The rapid growth of American cities and great changes in social conditions relative thereto has given rise to the present demand for municipal lodging houses separate and apart from jails and lock-ups and police stations, while the new methods of treating juvenile delinquents by probationary regulations has become so popular that rapid changes in former systems in municipal and county corrections are at this time readily accepted.

Better to secure some sort of uniformity in a state in county and municipal corrections, laws should be enacted covering the subjects of municipal and county jails, workhouses, lodging

houses, and the general regulation of the probationary work with juvenile delinquents. Whether this should be done directly by and under state control and management, or by advisory state supervision and inspection is a subject open for discussion in the several states.

Uniformity in the states relative to public charities does not exist. Each state has evolved its system, or rather a lack of system, by slow process, save where in a few states public spirited people have steadfastly studied these perplexing problems and have by their zeal and interest assisted in the more systematic development of a wiser general policy tending in a measure to uniformity of management and control.

Public charity is granted to the insane, the feeble-minded, the epileptic, the habitual drunkard, the orphan and the dependent child, the blind, the deaf, the old soldier and sailor, the soldier's widow, the adult blind, the aged and infirm, the sick, crippled and helpless and the aged dependent generally denominated the pauper.

State care of the insane is at this time accepted as the wisest form of care, details in the methods of which, however, vary in the different states, ranging from the entire care and support by the state in state institutions, to the county support of chronic insane, returned from state care and the boarding out of harmless cases in private families, — a plan which meets with the earnest approval of many students.

In some states, the state care of feeble-minded and epileptic has been clearly enunciated and, while no state has as yet segregated all such persons, resident in the state, in institutions providing for their care, the tendency in many states is towards the complete segregation in public institutions, including custodial care, during the term of the natural life of the inmates thus segregated.

The state care of orphans and dependent children has developed in a number of our states, where the state becomes the legalized guardian and protector of the child, educating and training him until he shall become an independent, self-supporting citizen, or until he can be wisely and safely placed in a home under adoption laws.

The state care of the veterans of our civil war is a well established policy, supplementing that of the national care. In the south, this assumes the form of state pensions in addition to state care in institutions. Early in the history of this country, the education of the blind and deaf was undertaken and in this province of public charities, progress has been steadily making, until the opportunity is now given in nearly every state in the Union for a proper and judicious education and training of such defectives. One of the latest ideas developed in state care is that of the aged and infirm, in lieu of their segregation in the county and municipal almshouses, and this feature will no doubt grow in popular favor. The experiments in state cure of adult blind or habitual drunkards have not, so far as known, been either satisfactory or successful.

The student who undertakes to investigate the subject, on broad lines of public charities, will readily discover that state care has been a slow growth and development from the old colonial system of town care. The almshouse, which came as a tradition and a custom with the early immigrants from England, was early established in the colonies, and all classes of dependents and non-self-supporting persons went "on the town" and became charges of the self-supporting and independent householder. The poor tax was a recognized institution and so readily was this tax paid that it was an easy matter for the lazy and shiftless to secure assistance at the hands of the more thrifty and industrious. The almshouse in the town became the general dumping ground for all classes of dependents, old and young, the mentally weak, the physically defective, a conglomerate, diseased mass and festering sore to each community. Gradually there has developed from this the idea of the segregating and separating out of the almshouse of the insane, of the feeble-minded, of the orphan and dependent child, of the blind child, of the deaf child, until, in our best communities, the almshouse today is recognized as an infirmary and hospital, rather than as a place of segration of the non-productive elements of society.

The town almshouse remains and becomes the county poor farm and county home throughout the length and breadth of the

land, while the development of our urban civilization has brought with it hospitals, infirmaries and municipal almshouses.

Our present day problem is how best and most expeditiously to aid this work of separation and elimination of undesirable and unsuitable members of our almshouse population.

The great evil of the county and municipal institutions is lack of intelligent administration, and your committee desires to report, at this time, a belief that it should be the duty and pleasure of all members of this conference, in season and out of season, to arouse local public sentiment favorable to the improvement of the administration of such institutions. In the states which have the advisory state board of charities, actively engaged in reviewing all questions of public charities and corrections, considerable progress is making in the matter of improving county and municipal institutions. The older members of the national conference recognize what Dr. Hoyt, of New York, as Secretary of the State Board of Charities of that state for many years, accomplished in his forty years missionary work in that state to improve almshouse conditions. Indiana, with a board having a history of little more than a decade, has likewise, in many ways, accomplished interesting reforms in the subject of county and municipal institutions and the kindred subjects of outdoor relief. Other states, with an advisory state board of charities, have equally interesting reports to make, and no one can read these reports without being gratified by the substantial progress that is making in this country.

The centralized board of control management for public charities, just now so prominently discussed, may well aid in the development of municipal and county charities at this time, although the future must show if these boards of control shall eventually discover the necessity of fostering public sentiment favorable to a bettter administration of county institutions. So far, these boards of control have not displayed any great interest or zeal in improving conditions of county and municipal institutions.

Your committee believes that at this time there should be advocated the provision by law, in each state, for a state inspector of county and municipal institutions, whether under the

authority of a board of control or of a state board of charities or by appointment by the governor, or otherwise, is at this time immaterial. The necessity of such a public inspector is the earnest recommendation of this committee. The inspector of county and municipal charities under state pay and endorsement, with sufficient length of term to warrant him in preparing himself properly for his duties, by personal visitation, publication of reports, suggestions and advice, could give the proper impetus to reforms that would result in great improvement in a very short time.

The development of public interest can likewise be advanced through the establishment of a state board of charities with advisory power, or the state board of control with executive power, or by volunteer societies, such as the State Charities Aid Societies of New York and New Jersey. The results of this volunteer society work of the State Charities Aid Associations of New York and New Jersey are of such a character and value that your committee is disposed to recommend the organization of such societies in all states, regardless of whether such states have an advisory board of charities or a central board of control.

A review of the condition of the statutes of the various states on the subject of county and municipal charities and outdoor relief shows that in very few states has much thought or attention been given, in recent years, to the modification or improvement of ancient laws. There have been slight amendments made to existing statutes in some of the states but nothing of great force and value has appeared in modern legislation, save and except in a few states. The Indiana law is cited as one of these exceptions, where the subject of out-door relief, as administered by the counties, is very fully protected and guarded against improper use and abuse. This law is in form a book of rules and advice to county officials having under the law the duty of administering poor relief. New York has built up its system of laws relating to county and municipal charities, until the legal provisions of that state on the subject are worthy of study and careful consideration by all persons seeking to improve conditions in their respective states. Ohio, Virginia, Massachusetts, Michigan, New Jersey, Wisconsin, Minnesota and California have in recent years improved the laws covering these subjects.

In out-door relief, the extreme activity of the associated charities movement in all the leading states of the country has resulted in a very active development of a public sentiment regarding the principles of investigation and co-operation, to the end that helpful relief, instead of harmful relief, is more often given than in the past. There remain, however, the vast number of sources from which out-door relief flows, in the thousands of counties and communities not touched by the spirit of modern charity organization endeavor, and to reach this vast field and to check the abuse of unwise, ignorant and indiscriminate out-door relief giving, your committee can only hope that through the fostering care and public service rendered by state boards of charities ,state aid societies, state boards of control and state and national conferences of public spirited citizens, the manifold abuses of indiscriminate giving may be checked and better methods may be put in vogue. Pending the operations of all these helps, the prompt and valuable results which may be obtained by a state inspector of county and municipal charities should not be overlooked.

THE VAGRANT: SOCIAL PARASITE OR SOCIAL PRODUCT.

BY WM. H. ALLEN, GENERAL AGENT ASSOCIATION FOR IMPROVING THE CONDITION OF THE POOR, N. Y.

For thirty years this national body has been discussing the vagrant, nearly four score of speakers having expounded his crimes against society. In looking over the addresses it appears that little advance has been made in all these years by way of characterizing the tramp and beggar. In fact the speaker was overwhelmed with the hopelessness of finding anything new to say, when in his crab pace through the records he found that twenty-six years ago the tramp had been described as a "lazy, shiftless, sauntering or swaggering, ill conditioned, irreclaimable, incorrigible, utterly depraved savage." The reflection that this

impressionist sketch emanated from a mere college professor, not from the unacademic, practical conference encouraged a wider reading, which in turn happily demonstrated a considerable percentage of vagrants to be reclaimable, corrigible and subject to education in self-support. Of certain experimental stations we shall hear this morning, and we hope that from every section will be presented testimony to prove that vagrancy can be made so rare that "Happy Hooligan" on stage, bill board or Sunday supplement would be as unintelligible as he is now unæsthetic.

This conference has since 1873 repeatedly committed itself to the belief that vagrancy is a curable disease which needs some surgery, some hospital and dispensary treatment, some house to house nursing and frequent isolation and disinfection. Municipal lodging houses, work on public roads, friendly visiting, probation, agricultural colonies, long term sentences to prison labor, employment bureaus, have all succeeded, each in its own way, in giving certain districts partial immunity from certain phases of the disease. We know enough to-day about the psychology of vagrants to be absolutely sure that a concerted attempt in country and city to apply that knowledge would drive vagrants to cover. But we know, too, that if the municipal lodging houses, woodyards and associations for improving the condition of the poor should re-instate all vagrants who will accept work treatment, and if the vagrancy police should segregate all who will not work, the removal of these restraining forces for one week would be followed by a flood of vagrancy. In other words we know that there is a source outside the vagrant himself which propagates vagrancy. If the vagrant were a mere parasite his removal would cause the extinction of his kind. That his elimination fails to result thus demonstrates that he is not the cause of the disease, is not himself the disease, but merely the putrid infected product, an excrescent growth organically dependent upon the body social, whose thorough treatment must be from within the body itself.

If for more than a generation we have added little either to our understanding of the recipient vagrant or to the principles of eliminating him, we wish to suggest that our failure is due in part to defective premises. We have failed, as we still fail, to distinguish adequately between the evil vagrancy, and its mani-

festations in some particular Dusty Fields recently from Guam, or some native of Germany whose name is "Mary Cassidy, sir". Are we not open to the charge that in our printed and spoken invectives we have made a scapegoat of a profession, which in the public mind, has few of the attributes with which we invest it? The feeble, blind granny who begs from door to door and the slinking mendicant who wants only a cup of coffee, are these vicious criminals? The polite ex-soldier, who is hurrying as rapidly as a gullible public will permit to the death-bed of his favorite sister in the next city, is not a barn burner or incipient murderer. Givers know that in the vast majority of cases their gifts to beggars and tramps would never have gone to the deserving poor, but rather to some luxury which would have given far less satisfaction than the beggar's dole. The vagrant accepts a donation with the conviction that he has brightened the day for his benefactor. He knows that he sells merit to masquerading philanthropy and ideas to the funny man, the marginal utility to each individual purchaser being greater than from a like expenditure in gum, cigars or vaudeville. Weary Walker and Herr Prof. Von Zo and Zo know, and the indiscriminate givers know, that the vagrant is at the close of every transaction the creditor. Attempts to commit the public to a belief in his total depravity, criminality, hard heartedness or expensiveness will continue to be generally ineffective because such belief is contrary to everyday experience and observation.

Another phase of vagrancy we submit for discussion this morning, infecting a far larger number of people and representing a far graver menace to social welfare, the source and support of the individual vagrant and the stronghold of the disease. I refer to the vagrancy of giving, that tramp philanthropy, that superficial samaritanism, that vagrant interest in one's fellowman which purchases self-complacency, relief from annoyance, reputation for generosity, and spurious mortgages on mansions in the skies from venders of hardluck stories, inventors of mutilated limbs and exhibitors of moral and physical deformities. The real vagrancy is the vagrancy of intellect and sympathy, whether the gift be a mite or a million, which attempts to obtain satisfaction entirely out of proportion to the thought and time

expended in giving, which confuses alms with justice and relief. It is the recipient who is wronged, not the giver. The blinds and poses which vagrant givers affect, and the falsehoods they tell themselves, are less excusable than the ruses of the street beggar or the idylls of the tramp. The indiscriminate giver is the quack doctor practicing contrary to established rules of cure, wronging the patient body and soul, arresting the progress of healing science and disseminating infection. It is as uncharitable and as reprehensible for an individual unlicensed citizen on the street to prescribe for vagrancy as for hydrophobia or typhoid fever. Our problem is primarily to convince and correct this citizen giver rather than to convince and reclaim the tramp. We shall never be rid of the man who would rather beg than saw wood; we may hope to be rid of the man who would rather give a nickel to an able-bodied beggar than send him to an agency which can make him self-supporting.

If these premises are correct, if the vagrancy census is but an index to perverted charity, to ignorant or vagrant giving, then it is a matter of comparative indifference just which one hundred thousand men and women shall tramp and beg, we must abandon the hope of solving the vagrancy problem by direct treatment of the recipient vagrant and our vagrancy legislation, our lodging houses, vagrancy police, woodyards and agricultural colonies must be adapted primarily to teaching givers the superiority of thorough over vagrant giving. Would not our work for the tramp and beggar become more fruitful and encouraging if we were endeavoring through him to achieve the permanent betterment of those classes which are above the margin of economic efficiency? If instead of saying to the public,—"Do not be a party to the vagrant's offense against society," we would say, —"Do not wrong the vagrant, do not make him a party to your offense against society." The difference in attitude and in result is analogous to that between the conventional card prohibiting expectoration on a penalty of fine or imprisonment or both and the statement in Belfast's tramways, —"spitting is a vile and filthy habit and those who indulge in it subject themselves to the loathing and disgust of their fellow passengers." By changing our premises so as to emphasize the vagrant giver's wrong to the tramp

and beggar, to himself and to society, we may hope to make him conscious of his meanness and thus reach vagrancy at its source.

Nor is this distinction merely theoretical. On the contrary it is very practical for it directs certain positive remedial steps whose inauguration this conference can effect. In sketching hastily two or three desiderata, I have thought it expedient, because expeditious, to present the suggestions in the form of affirmations. If time allowed I should prefer to ask questions and to mitigate assertions by "perhaps," "possibly," "conceivably," and "I wonder though," etc. Will you kindly accept the propositions as questions for discussion.

1. A complete vagrancy census is indispensable. A committee of this body could secure such census. But to that end it is necessary to obtain the co-operation of city, county and state, statistical authorities as well as those of private and sectarian charity. A system of uniform blanks could be devised which would give the number of beggars and tramps officially relieved. This committee could do great service through state conferences of religious and charitable bodies, syndicated articles and press notices. It could do little in one year, somewhat more in five and a great deal in ten. Occasional reports on limited phases of the problem will accomplish little. Continuous cumulative effects must be achieved. Such a committee would entail considerable expense of time and money. We can never solve the vagrancy problem until this work is done. Is it worth while?

2. Existing agencies might effectually assist the national committee by co-operating among themselves in establishing a clearing house of information regarding vagrants relieved or in using existing registration bureaus. It is practicable for the various agencies in New York or Philadelphia or Atlanta to send to a common clearing house a description similar to that which Mr. Forbes will describe as now in use by certain co-operating police departments. For the establishment and conduct of such a clearing house little money is needed but rather a willingness to co-operate. Is this worth while?

3. We must tell the truth and the whole truth, not intermittently but always, about mission coffee, Sunday breakfasts, curbstone sociology and similar debauchery of generous impulse. Re-

ligious emotion should not become the instrument of harm to the body and soul of the vagrant even in the name of religion. Dare we insist upon religious inspiration which will incapacitate a man to stand "three good conversions a week without bodily injury?" Dare we weigh the possible good which comes from one conversion against the certain harm which comes from saturating a hundred vagrants in hypocrisy?

4. A study of salaries and wages paid those who detect vagrancy and determine and record its treatment would be of invaluable service in solving the vagrancy problem. We now demand so little from the overseer of the poor, from the mission preacher, and too often from the friendly visitor, that we can place little reliance upon deductions regarding adequate and inadequate relief, mendicancy and indigence.

This conference could from a detailed study of qualifications possessed by those who distribute material and spiritual relief to the vagrant, discover to what extent so-called organized charity is preserving the traditional belief that any one is good enough to be overseer of the poor or mission preacher. Dare we be honest in discussing friendly visitors and vagrant giving? Dare we demand of friendly visitors the same training that we demand of paid visitors? If not can we deny that in the name of organized charity we are ourselves guilty of indiscriminate giving? By emphasizing friendly visiting, the "encouragement of the individual philantropic impulse," "the preservation of the fountain springs of private charity" we are causing to persist the theory of house vs. hospital healing. We cannot cure vagrancy unless we proclaim universally that it is not charity for a layman to prescribe remedies where trained physician and hospital are at hand. We must hope to educate givers to the point where they will be generous for the sake of permanently mitigating human suffering and increasing human happiness, not to gratify a personal impulse.

5. Provision is lacking in small communities for adequate relief. Of the relation of this defect to vagrancy Mr. Jackson will speak from his extensive experience.

6. This body can do much to teach right principles of political organization or at least to minimize the antagonism to

social and political legislation which too often emanates from the strong supporters of this conference because of the fetish "local self-government." Is it too much to say that the vagrancy problem will never be solved until responsibility for the tramp and beggar is lodged in state governments? We shall hear of the Massachusetts' plan of centralization, indeterminate sentences, state workhouses and state probation. It is worth while to judge of local self-government in the light of 20th century problems rather than 18th century theory.

7. This body can be instrumental in removing the stigma from public charity and in promoting its administration. Is it not one of the anomalies of our generation that philanthropists have assumed a double personality, refusing as citizens the means of adequate relief which they preach and provide as philanthropists? Can we hope that the problem of vagrancy, of re-instating or segregating of those who are temporarily or permanently below the margin of economic efficiency, will ever be solved until the workers and the interested representatives in this body apply themselves, not to exposing the weaknesses of public relief agencies but to dignifying their responsibility? To give adequate attention to public relief agencies would require the suspension for a time of judgments which the conference has assisted in the past to crystallize into so-called scientific principles. Organized private charity, the product of city conditions has enforced its precepts upon students of sociology who marvel at their failure to apply these precepts in the small cities, towns and rural districts. So far as organized charity signifies adequate relief its precepts must be preserved. But in establishing its principles of adequate and scientific relief has not organized charity proclaimed distinctions between public and private charities, whose recognition as universally applicable would forever postpone the solution of the vagrancy problem? Could we feel sure of the re-election of Homer Folks as Commissioner of Charities in Greater New York for ten years, a consummation for which organized charity can properly strive, it is more than likely that these theoretical distinctions between private and public charities would go to the winds. I ask whether the ultimate organization shall

not be greater responsibility, greater relief by public authorities together with greater supervision by private organizations such as the State Charities Aid Associations of New Jersey and New York. With two or three exceptions the work done by the local overseers of the poor in the various states is unknown to those who dominate thought in the field of charity work. It will probably never be known until through activity begun at this conference greater emphasis shall be laid upon the personal qualifications, adequate service and uniform reports of such officers, overseers of the poor, county almshouse wardens, jailors, etc. The vagrant offers dramatic stimuli to public interest and a most effective appeal for such education in public relief. Permanent progress in public thought, that is in the education of givers, must register itself in public administration.

ALMS HOUSE ABUSES AND THEIR CORRECTION.

BY CHARLES A. ELLWOOD, PROFESSOR OF SOCIOLOGY, UNIVERSITY OF MISSOURI.

The subject of county and municipal charities is fundamental in any discussion of improved methods of caring for the dependent classes; for these institutions, especially the county almshouses, are not only the basis of our whole system of public and private poor relief, but in almost every community they are still the most important agencies at work in that direction, since they are concerned, if not with the relief of the largest number, at least with the relief of the most helpless and depressed. To the practical philanthropist therefore, who has not narrowed his interest to a locality, a sect, or a class, there is no more important problem than that of the correction of abuses in our county and municipal institutions, and especially, abuses in the management of our county almshouses.

That these abuses exist in abundance, especially in the south and west, no one who has at all investigated conditions would deny. In my investigation of conditions in the state of Missouri,

for example I discovered that in the majority of county almshouses there was little or no separation of the sexes; no classification as regards physical, mental, or moral condition; no special provision for the sick; no work-test for the able-bodied; and that the common practice of the county authorities was to let out the care of the almshouse and its inmates to the lowest bidder. But these bare statements of fact give little idea as to the actual condition of almshouses in the more undeveloped portions of our country. Let me illustrate, then, by concrete examples of the treatment of one class in Missouri almshouses, the insane, who in Missouri constitute one-third of the almshouse population. I learned of one almshouse superintendent who declared that he found the horse-whip to be the most efficacious means of quieting insane inmates. In another almshouse I found an insane woman had been kept strapped in bed for over six years. According to the first annual report of the Missouri State Board of Charities, on one county poor-farm an insane man was found who had been kept in a stockade, open to the sky, winter and summer, with hardly a shred of clothing on him, for seven years. According to the same report another insane man was found chained to a stump in a poor-house yard.

These are a few concrete cases of which I happen to have authentic information. In general, my investigation disclosed that in a majority of Missouri almshouses there are cells for the confinement of the insane; that in many cases manacles and chains are put on the insane under which restraint they are kept for years; and that they are, if not brutally treated, at least grossly neglected. The condition of the feeble-minded, the epileptics, and the children in Missouri almshouses is, from the social point of view, as bad as that of the insane. But I will not enlarge upon their condition, as the facts that I have given are sufficient demonstration of the truth which I wish to emphasize, namely, that the gravest abuses do exist in connection with the management of our county almshouses.

The conditions in Missouri are by no means exceptional. They simply illustrate the conditions which obtain in many states. What efforts, then, can be made to improve these conditions and correct these errors in the management of county almshouses?

Efforts can and should be made in three directions. First, there are certain abuses in the management of almshouses which may be corrected through the visitation of local boards of visitors; second, there are abuses which may be corrected through inspection by state officials; third, there are abuses which can only be corrected through mandatory and prohibitive legislation. A combination of all of these methods is necessary to secure the best possible almshouse administration. I will discuss briefly these methods in the order named.

That frequent and persistent visitation of the almshouse by local committees can accomplish much good is beyond question. This method is not only sufficient to secure the correction of minor abuses and a general improvement of conditions, but is an indispensable preliminary to any efforts to obtain state supervision and proper legislation. It is an efficient means of enlisting the interest of a number of intelligent citizens in each county in the almshouse problem, and so furnishes the basis for agitation for proper legislation. While the work of such boards of visitors must be considered in the main as preliminary or supplementary to state action, yet the direct results which they can accomplish in improving almshouse conditions are not insignificant. If their visits are frequent enough (they should not be less often than once a month) such local boards can easily bring about in the almshouse humane treatment of the inmates, cleanliness of persons and premises, better care of the sick, and many other minor reforms. Further, they can aid in providing reading matter, work, recreation, and religious services for the inmates, and their interest in the almshouse will always be indispensable for insuring the best possible management.

The laws of New York, Ohio, and other states provide for such local boards of visitors; and the last General Assembly of Missouri, I may note, passed a law providing for such county boards of visitors, from which many good results are expected to flow. But in states which have not such laws this work of visiting the almshouses can be inaugurated in any county by a few philanthropic men and women. All that is needed to secure the good results is a genuine interest, and frequent and persistent visitation of the almshouse.

But local boards of visitors, whether authorized by law or not, because they are local and made up of ordinary citizens, not of experts, cannot effect such reforms in the almshouses of a state as the inauguration of an adequate system of classification, the erection of modern buildings adapted to such classification and the exclusion of classes which should not be in almshouses. In part, such reforms may be brought about through state inspection and supervision by the state board of charities. I do not mean occasional visits by members of the state board of charities (which in my opinion accomplish little), but the systematic visitation and inspection of all the almshouses in the state at least once each year by the secretary of the state board or by a special inspector working under him. The value of such investigation is great. If tactfully and intelligently carried out it can, unaided by aught save public opinion, practically transform the almshouse system of a state. The inspector, being the representative of the state and at the same time an expert, is in a position to suggest, and gradually enforce, an adequate system of classification of inmates in the almshouse. Again, he would be in a position to advise about the construction of new almshouses, and his recommendations would probably gradually secure almshouses adapted to modern ideas without any specific mandatory legislation. He would also be able perhaps to influence the county authorities to appoint better men as superintendents, to make more rigorous rules regarding the admission and discharge of inmates, and to require work of all able-bodied inmates. Finally, he might exercise considerable influence in securing the removal from the almshouses of certain classes of inmates who should be cared for in special institutions, such as the insane, the feeble-minded and the children.

But here the limitations of state inspection and supervision without the support of mandatory legislation begin to become manifest. It is evident that in its earlier phases state inspection must be largely educational in aim to secure the enactment of proper laws, while later its function is to supplement and enforce those laws. Its first business is to set before the people the facts regarding almshouse conditions and to suggest legis-

lation where needed. The moral influence of inspection is great, but legislation must be relied upon to correct the most serious abuses and errors in almshouse management. The chief value of inspection then is that it is a step toward securing definite legislation.

Let us consider a few of the abuses which require for their correction such legislation. In states where the cost of caring for the indigent insane devolves upon the county, experience shows that it is impossible to get counties to send all of their insane to state hospitals, since the support of an indigent insane person in a state hospital costs always about twice as much as in the county almshouse. A few who have influential friends will be sent to the state hospitals, while the other insane paupers will be kept in the almshouse where their presence will inevitably give rise to such abuses as I described in the first part of this paper. Legislation of one sort or another is, then, necessary to get the insane out of the almshouses. Either the state must declare the insane to be state wards, taking upon itself the burden of supporting the indigent insane, or it must prohibit the keeping of the indigent insane in almshouses and make obligatory their commitment to state hospitals. The case with the feeble-minded and the epileptic is practically the same. Again, inspection and the efforts of philanthropic societies, like the Children's Home Society, will not suffice to keep children, either defective or normal, out of almshouses, but definite prohibitive legislation is necessary. Finally, it is idle to talk of improving conditions and correcting errors in the management of almshouses by inspection and visitation as long as the system of management permitted by law is that of "farming out" the care of the inmates to the lowest bidder or to some one who has a political pull. Under such a vicious system, visitation and inspection can accomplish little except as they result in agitation for legislative prohbition of the "farming out" system and the substitution of a rationai method of managing the almshouse. Thus the correction of abuses in the management of almshouses must rest ultimately with the legislative power of the state.

But how can these three methods of improving conditions in almshouses, visitation, inspection and legislative enactment, be put practically into effect in states where none of these exist? The answer is, the order of evolution is that indicated. First must come the visitation of the almshouses by self-appointed local committees of philanthropic men or women. If a state board of charities exists, the agitation can best be carried on through that body, first to obtain state inspection and then definite legislation. But in states where no state board exists, philanthropic workers need not be discouraged. A general educational campaign can be carried on, visitation can be spread from county to county, and even state inspection can be undertaken by a voluntary state organization, such as a "State Charities Aid Association," though above all efforts should be concentrated on the securing of a state board of charities of the supervisory type. In this connection I may note that educational institutions, especially state universities, have here a duty to perform. If university extension work is needed in literature, science and agriculture, how much more is it needed in practical philanthropy. A state university, through wisely directed university extension work, which would educate the people along these lines, could alone indirectly correct all the evils which we have been discussing.

In conclusion, let me point to the instructive experience of England. The workhouses of England (which correspond to our almshouses) are kept in their perfect condition through the three methods which I have discussed — visitation by local boards of visitors, inspection by state officials, and centralized legislative and executive control. I can not tell you the story of how this came about, as it is a long one; but it is sufficient to say that the English government has found that none of these methods can be dispensed with if the administration of its workhouses is to be the best possible. It has found, too, that a more and more centralized system of control of workhouse administration is necessary; and this I believe will be found necessary also in this country in order to correct completely the errors and abuses in the management of our county almshouses.

COUNTY AND MUNICIPAL CORRECTIONS.

BY AMOS W. BUTLER, SECRETARY INDIANA BOARD OF STATE CHARITIES.

From the local prisons all the existing correctional institutions have come. They are the germ from which the penal system has grown. They are still the primary prisons, and in them are gathered manifold more persons year by year than into the state institutions. Most persons never see any other kind of a prison. It is to them the emblem of punishment for violated law. While almost every one is familiar with the outside of his local prison, few there are who have been within it, or have any knowledge of how it is planned, built or kept, or of the condition of those who unfortunately are its inmates.

The actual condition of the majority of our local prisons is far removed from what it should be theoretically. The separating gulf between their administration theoretically and actually is almost impassible. Occasionally an official who has informed himself puts what he has learned into practice and gives a good administration. Such persons are few. Most of the jails in all our states are conducted without knowledge of the purpose of a jail or what its administration should be. In fact, in many States they are constructed by those who do not understand the needs. In some states boards of state charities have authority to inspect the plans and advise or require conformity to a recognized type of structure, suited to the proper purposes for which it is to be used.

County prisons comprise jails and work-houses; municipal prisons, police stations, lock-ups and work-houses. Work-houses are sometimes supported by the county and sometimes by the city. Some work-houses are well conducted and provision is made for the employment of the inmates. Others are poorly equipped and little attention is given to the employment or improvement of those confined therein.

I shall speak principally of county jails. Police stations are commonly built with a better understanding of the needs, and they

have better care. Inmates are usually retained therein for a short time only. Seldom are they kept more than one night. Lock-ups are small. While sometimes well kept, they are generally neglected. Being used merely for the temporary detention of the prisoners of a town or small city, at times they have frequent occupants; again they are empty for quite a time. Occasionally one burns, cremating the poor occupant. When not occupied, they are often permitted to become dirty, untidy and to fall into decay.

While this is and has been an age of great progress in almost every line of social activity, that spirit does not seem to have influenced the jail system of our land. Most of our jails in plan and management are little, if any, advanced above those of a century ago.

I have visited jails in about a third of our states. From my observations and the information I have obtained from those familiar with conditions elsewhere, I believe what I have to say gives in a general way the conditions as they are.

The first jails were built of logs or rails. Sometimes a prisoner was securely held by having his head pilloried between two of the logs of which the jail was built. These log structures have, in most states, almost entirely passed away. In Indiana but a single one remains. It is the Brown County Jail, at Nashville. The structure is two stories high and answers the needs of the community.

Almost all jails are inconvenient. A large number are badly lighted, easily get out of repair, and without the most careful attention, quickly become unsanitary. While nominally there are arrangements for separation of the sexes, in some cases this is so practically only in name. In fact, in a large number of jails, the men and women have no difficulty in communicating. In some they come in contact, and to our shame be it said, there are jails where, so far as results are concerned, they might as well be confined in the same room. Quite a number of jails were built for a time when the population was but a fraction of what it is now. They are at present unequal to the demands made upon them, and in consequence are crowded to such a degree,

and conditions become so foul, that it is almost impossible to believe that the things one sees can really be.

The administation of jails varies, too. In some places, with a very poor jail, the sheriff and his wife have taken so much interest in the welfare of the prisoners that they have made life therein almost bearable; while elsewhere with a much better structure, the care of the building is neglected, and the jail becomes infested with vermin, reeking with filth and foul with noisome odors.

In some jails the walls are marked and spattered with tobacco juice; the iron work is rusted and covered with expectoration; the floor is dirty and wet; the closets are out of repair and leak greatly. There is no wonder that the inmates, under such conditions, complain of feeling badly and object to the foul odors that infest the place. These are conditions of neglect that are sometimes chargeable to the county commissioners and sometimes to the sheriff; but wherever they are found, steps should be taken to have them remedied as soon as possible. When brought to the attention of the authorities, it is no unusual thing to have them hesitate to make the needed repairs and even attempt to find some excuse to justify them for not proceeding promptly in the matter.

In most jails there is no attempt to separate the prisoners. The men congregate in the corridors and spend their time in gambling, recounting their crimes and telling indecent stories. Mixed with all this is a strain of vulgarity and profanity, a flavor of tobacco, and the scent of unwashed human beings, together with the odors of the place of confinement. Into such a place are put the old offender and the incorrigible boy; the hardened criminal and the witness awaiting trial. There they gather about the stove, or the window, or over a game of cards. Can this be helpful or inspiring? Alas, no. The tendency is to draw all there gathered downward. The young boy, or even the young man, there may become enamored with the glamor of the criminal's tale and be led into paths of crime. In the majority of cases, jails are but places of preparation for criminal ways. They are the schools of crime where are masters to teach those less knowing in such things the lessons of their craft. Compulsory educa-

tion has become a fact in many states. Compulsory education in vice flourishes in our minor prisons at great cost to our people. These schools are expensive ones. How many young prisoners are there who have been helped into criminal lives and led to adopt a career of crime through the instruction obtained and the inspiration received in one of these miscellaneous companies congregated in the county jail.

What is said of men is true of women. Incorrigible girls and women who have fallen so low that their names are a synonym for all that is vile, are associated together in the same room. What can the results be? In most of the jails, the women inmates have no one to wait upon them but men. In certain more populous counties women prisoners are under the care of matrons and there the improvement is marked.

Obviously, when individuals are not separated one from the other, there is no attempt made at their classification. Where prisoners are permitted to congregate in the corridors of the jail, they readily communicate with friends or accomplices on the outside, and this is the cause of the greater number of the jail releases. They also destroy the furniture and bedding, break the fixtures, deface the iron work, and mar and damage the walls of the building. It is impossible to place the responsibility for this upon the proper person.

Many jails have become boarding houses for tramps and beggars. Officials receive all who come and draw pay for their board while they are there. The fee system is one of the abuses of present jail methods.

These, briefly stated, are some of the conditions that present themselves to those whose duties call them into county jails. Few others go there unless committed. In the states which have boards of state charities these conditions have been improved. County boards of visitors have also been helpful in this way.

Most of the jails that have been constructed within the last few years in some states have been built, more or less, in conformity to a recognized general plan, with a view to the purpose for which the structure is designed. We cannot, perhaps, as things are now, get the ideal jail, for the reason that it is impos-

sible under existing laws, to obtain the best administration. Consequently, we must plan our structures so as to have that which is best adapted to existing conditions. In the best plans that we can adopt the following points should be borne in mind:

The jail should be of brick or stone; the walls unplastered. Provision should be made for a thorough separation of the sexes and for the classification of prisoners. Juveniles and adults should not be placed together. Quarters should be provided for sick and insane inmates. Opportunities for communication between prisoners should be reduced to the minimum. Each inmate should have a cell in which he should be confined day and night when not employed or exercising, unless excused by a physician. The idea is that in a jail the sexes and prisoners of different kinds shall be separated, and individuals of each grade should be isolated. When exercising only one at a time should use the inner corridor for this purpose. To the outside corridor prisoners should never be admitted. With this separation, prisoners will not have the opportunity to gather together in groups, play cards, recount stories of their lives, exchange criminal experiences or plan escapes or the commission of crime when released. They cannot mar nor deface the jail nor destroy any of its appurtenances or belongings, and then escape the consequences by denying their guilt. They cannot, as is often the case when they are let out of their cells, particularly if they have access to the outer corridor, communicate with friends or accomplices on the outside who will assist them to a means of escape. When each inmate is so confined in his cell he cannot see any other inmate, and should not do so. If any damage is done to the building or public property, it is then known that he and no one else did it. When it is known that defacing or destroying the property will be punished with short diet or imprisonment in a dark cell, or both, according to the gravity of the offense; that the jail is not to afford inmates an opportunity for congregating where they may have a good time and be assured comfortable beds, warm quarters and sufficient food, not only will the jail and property therein be better cared for, but the number of prisoners will be materially lessened, for criminals certainly will endeavor to keep out of an institution where from the time of their

admission until their departure, they will occupy solitary apartments and not be permitted to associate with others of their kind. The end will be a saving of repairs, improvement in sanitary conditions, and by decreasing the number of those received, materially reduce the expenses to which the county will be put.

In devising a plan for a jail, there is always to be taken into consideration the condition of the county and its needs. Having secured a good jail, it is necessary then to have a good administration. This is one of the most difficult things to obtain. The sheriff is elected because of his political belief, and not on account of his ability to administer a jail. We find some who are well qualified and who take pleasure in caring for those committed to their charge, as well as conditions will permit. On the other hand, there are some who leave the entire administration to a deputy and who know little and care less about the care of the building or the treatment of its inmates. Additional laws will secure better care of our jails and those confined therein. A few rules of a simple character, applicable to the officers and the inmates, if properly enforced, would greatly improve conditions. Those who have had supervision of such institutions know there are notably three things that the inmates do not like, cleanliness, neatness, work.

The greatest step that has been taken by England in her jail system was that by which all jails were placed under the control of the government; and those who care for them and administer them are persons selected on account of qualifications, and who retain their places by merit. As a result there has been a notable decrease of persons confined therein. Unsuccessful efforts have been made in Massachusetts to place all the jails of that state under the control of the state government. Those confined in the jails are placed there for the violation of state laws. Why should not the state have charge of its own wards? It might be wise for the employment of prisoners, to lessen the evil effects of our jails, for the purpose of reducing crime and as a means for the reformation of many who now have little opportunity in that way, if there could be erected, within our State, district work-houses, under the care of the state, to which could be committed all such convicted ones as now serve jail sentences.

This would provide what we so greatly need, the separation of prisoners, improved discipline, better administration and employment for the inmates. The latter they now have in but few places. Jails would then serve their proper function — merely as places of detention for those awaiting trial. Those convicted would be confined in work-houses.

In the light of present knowledge, it would seem that the ideal system of penal institutions in a commonwealth would provide for two separate classes of institutions; those solely for detention and those for the sequestration of the convicted. Lock-ups and police stations for towns and cities and jails for counties would be solely places of detention for those charged with crime or held as witnesses. Places of confinement for those convicted, which would be district work-houses for those serving short sentences, reform schools for juveniles, a woman's prison for women, a reformatory for young women, and state prisons for older men, confirmed criminals and those serving life sentences; all under state control free from partisan management conducted on the merit system. These should be supplemented by a complete and unified system of criminal laws, including a juvenile court, probation, "indeterminate" sentence and parole laws. The last two should be applicable to all the last mentioned institutions. This system, which now seems to us to be ideal, has not been attained in its entirety in any state. Several have approached it.

I may be excused for speaking of conditions in Indiana,— not that I would hold them up as superior to those in other states; I know that in some things other states have surpassed us, and some have had a longer experience with laws and institutions that are new to us; but I know conditions in Indiana actually and better than I know those elsewhere.

In that state there were evolved from the minor prisons a series of penal institutions, all designed to be correctional. The first of these to be established was a state prison. With the growth of feeling that it was not right to sentence young boys to the State Prison, came the establishment of the House of Refuge, which has since become the Indiana Boys' School, at Plainfield. The scandals growing out of the confinement of both

sexes in the State Prison aroused our people to the necessity of making separate provision for women. In consequence, Indiana in 1869 established at Indianapolis the first separate woman's prison, which was known as the Indiana Reformatory Institution for Women and Girls. In 1877 it was placed entirely in the hands of women and still remains under their control. By action of the last legislature, the Industrial School for Girls is to be separated and removed far from the Woman's Prison. There on a farm is to be established an institution for their care and training, built on the cottage plan. The present buildings will be occupied by the Indiana Woman's Prison.

In 1897 the Indiana Reformatory was established, and to it all men between the ages of sixteen and thirty years, except they be guilty of treason, or murder in the first or second degree, are committed. The same year the indeterminate sentence and parole system was established.

The laws relating to all these state institutions, except the State Prison, provide for non-partisan administration. The governor, however, in his last appointment, has selected a well-known member of the opposite political party from himself to be a member of the State Prison Board, and in that institution to-day the administration is thoroughly non-partisan.

There is upon the statute books of the state a law providing that in any county in which there is a home for the friendless women, all women prisoners may be cared for in such institution. In the city of Richmond, in Wayne County, there is such a home. No women prisoners are ever confined in the Wayne county jail. They are all placed in this institution. The only similar place for confinement with which I am acquainted, is in Washington, D. C. There a residence has been rented and fitted up specially for women and children who are cared for there instead of in the police station.

Our laws authorize matrons for the police station in our larger cities, and the same are required for jails in the larger counties.

Contract labor should be abolished in the Reformatory and State Prison. In the former institution the contracts expire in 1906 and no more can be made; and there is no authority for

making contracts at the State Prison which will extend beyond the year 1910.

The last legislature established a separate juvenile court for Marion County, in which is located the city of Indianapolis; provided that the judge of the Circuit court in all counties of over 50,000 population shall be the judge of the juvenile court, and authorized the establishment of a juvenile court and the probation system in every county in the state. This law prohibits keeping children under fourteen years of age in any jail or police station in the state.

When we shall have removed the Industrial School for Girls from its present building, that structure could be remodeled and used as a work-house for women. To it could be sent all convicted women in the state, and the work-house and Woman's Prison would be under the same board of trustees. District work-houses could be established upon extensive tracts of land, having good water supply and drainage and convenient means of communication. If on this land there should be good beds of clay, desirable quarries of stone and fertile, tillable soil, prisoners could be furnished employment in the manufacture of brick and tile for state use, in the preparation of stone for ballast and road-making purposes and in the cultivation of fruits and vegetables for use in the public institutions.

Our county and municipal correctional institutions form but a link in the state's penal system. To understand their condition, one needs to know the condition of the whole system. To learn their proper work, one needs to know the whole range of the work. We must get away from the idea of vindictive punishment. The purpose of this work as a whole is not to punish the offender. It is to protect society by confining the convicted one, and if possible by reforming him. The children of Heth have passed away. Their law, "An eye for an eye" should also cease to be a part of modern thought and practice. Our whole correctional system should be based upon helpfulness, effort at the reformation of the convicted one, and the protection of society against the lawless.

THE RURAL TRAMP.

BY JAS. F. JACKSON, OF MINNEAPOLIS, MINN.

The statistics concerning the treatment of the tramp in western poor-houses and jails are insufficient to warrant a scientific statement on the subject.

Everywhere the poor-house serves as a sort of hospital for the tramp when he is unable to travel. In the northwest when well he is as apt to be found in any other house as in the poor-house. I am informed that as one goes east the poor-house is more often sought, and that in some states it is one of his regular stopping places, though the quarters are not always made inviting. The tramp is a demoralizing element either in the poor-house or in jail.

The records are incomplete, but from considerable correspondence it appears that more than one-half of the commitments to jails and work-houses in the northwest are non-residents, though a somewhat less proportion committed to state prisons and reformatories.

In some instances the tramp secures commitment to the jail or workhouse to secure comfortable quarters for the winter. I am told this is a common custom in New Jersey and Pennsylvania where they are not obliged to work while in jail, but are freely allowed the companionship of their kind. They are careful, however, not to seek commitment to a jail known to be constructed and managed on the segregate plan.

Throughout the country districts the tramp is frequently lodged in the village lockup over night. This plan is condoned because he is believed to be safer in the lockup than at large. The policy of the country is to feed him and furnish him work when he will accept it. The policy of the town and smaller cities is to move him on.

To prevent the development of the tramp, the country must take much the same means as the city. The adaptation of the settlement idea to neglected lives of numerous country communities is one means which merits general, intelligent action.

For the cure of the tramp now on the road we must chiefly look not to the lonely farmer but to the cities, for "The whole repressive and remedial work can be done more effectively with better opportunity to watch the results in the city than in the country." This becomes a self-evident proposition when we recall that in the country he is a nomad, but in the winter he establishes himself in the city. There the highly specialized forms of charitable activity may accomplish for him their perfect work. For a fair proportion, the municipal lodging house with its registration and bath, its inspection and work can prescribe the treatment needed, co-operate with employers, with medical and other charities, and return many to normal life. After the municipal lodging house, the charity organization society and all other reclaiming and differentiating forces have performed their part, there is the workhouse for the remainder.

In the country such comprehensive treatment is impossible though the smaller cities and villages can within limitations follow the plan of the metropolis. The simple expedients of the wood yard and the stone pile have been successful in ridding particular villages of tramps. But when, as a result, the lack of tramps makes the expedient no longer necessary, the work test is neglected and following the next change of officials the tramp returns. These experiments are useful mainly for the evidence they afford of the effect of compulsory work on our subject. Any effective plan must be scientific and consistent throughout an entire state. There are many causes, physical, social and economic, for the development of the tramp, and the scheme of cures must be applicable to all.

In the country it is useless to preach no food for the tramp because unless the public authorities feed him the farmers will. The question is, shall he be given the food or made to earn it. It seems desirable that each community provide a place where the vagrants may have a few days' board in return for work, punish those who refuse to comply with the conditions, and educate the people to appreciate the need of this treatment.

Perhaps some modifications of the effective German Arbeiter Kolonien and refuges (die Herbergen zur Heimath) will help us. We must substitute the admonition "Stop" for the com-

mand "Move on" before we make any headway. The man must show whence he came, whither and why he goes and if he came from no place he must be made to stop with us. When a man finds that he cannot get free food either he will work or steal. If he works, well, and if he steals he will soon be in prison. In either case he ceases to be a tramp.

In America the term tramp is no longer descriptive and it is agreed that the facility of movement afforded him by the railroad is largely responsible for his increased numbers. Those who are more criminal than tramp, find the tramp's license on the railroad especially helpful. A chief of police says that free transportation of tramps on trains makes them criminals and they are on the increase.

The tramp is not allowed to ride free in any other country, why in America? Why do not the railway managers enforce the rule prohibiting his free transportation and stop a practice which at much direct and indirect cost to the companies is conducive to the development of the lazy, the vicious and the criminal. A chief of police writes that nine-tenths of the tramps brought to his city are by railroads having no special police. One railway manager says (1) that the execution of the order to carry no tramps did not involve heavy expense, (2) the company were supported by police authorities and justices, (3) the tramps did not inflict retaliatory measures. As to the ability of the railways to enforce this rule they seem pretty well able to enforce every other rule.

The difficulties are greater on the lines west of the Mississippi river, especially west and southwest of Minnesota, where at and before harvest time the number of wayfarers is so great in proportion to the number of trains that railway companies consider it practically impossible to rid themselves of the horde who frequently swarm over the whole train. This in spite of the low rates in force for bona fide harvesters, and the further fact that hundreds of men are shipped free by employment agencies to work on railway construction, many of whom do not reach the work and the others do not remain. Walking is not generally good on American country roads and if the railroads

do not tolerate the tramp, the difficulties of the problem will be greatly diminshed.

Many a wayfarer is unfortunate or mentally unbalanced and it would be well if as a body we were to leave the conception of the tramp held by the comic paper or the police and think of him as a man made in God's likeness, for whom our best is none too good. Let us cease our thoughtless and sentimental treatment, take him as he is and do for him that which is best for the man and for society. We should make the responsibility entirely his if he desires to remain a tramp, but the responsibility will be ours if he is permitted for long periods to act the tramp. He must by kindness, persuasion and force be brought into normal relations with men or be segregated.

The hope of his social redemption or segregation is in scientific treatment, it is in the intelligent study and the widespread discussion of the problem and in the growing appreciation of civic duty which is marked by the successful beginnings in the treatment of the tramp question in the largest cities.

The situation is difficult and challenges our intelligence, our ingenuity and our devotion to the best interests of mankind.

REINSTATEMENT OF VAGRANTS THROUGH MUNICIPAL LODGING HOUSES.

BY ALICE C. WILLARD, CHICAGO.

In the discussion of the vagrant and the value of municipal lodging houses, the matter will be considered mainly from the point of view of a knowledge of the situation gained in my own city, Chicago. The problem of the vagrant is not a local one. Each city and section of the country is forced to consider it; and it seems likely that some concerted action must be taken throughout the entire country before certain phases of the problem can be met and adequately worked out to a solution.

But Chicago is fairly typical of other American cities in regard to its vagrant and homeless men, although in some respects the situation is a little more serious there than elsewhere. Reasons for this are not far to seek; the size and situation of the city is in itself a cause. In the midst of a farming country where summer harvest fields need the services of hundreds of men for but part of the year; at the foot of the Lake, on which are freight and other boats employing men again for but part of the year; in a section of the country where the building and repairing of railroads, track raising, etc., give work to thousands; these industries and many others within the city itself, require the employment of thousands of men, the majority of whom come from elsewhere and are without home ties in the city. In addition to this the size and infinite possibilities both for fortune and adventure, of a great city like Chicago, act as a magnet to draw young men and boys from all the surrounding country. Many come with the honest intention of locating and earning their own way; but, at least until they get started, the cheap lodging house is apt to claim them; and once within its walls, custom and association make it easy for them to remain there; and with many it is only a question of a short time until deterioration begins and they become members of that dangerous and unhelpable class with which all of us are familiar. The open police stations (our Municipal Lodging House is but one year old) and the reputation of the city as a good place for beggars have long made it attractive to men of still another sort; and mingled with the passively harmful tramps and vagrants, are not a few pickpockets and petty thieves, who swell the numbers and seriously complicate the situation.

One cannot consider the question of the vagrant intelligently without considerable study of the entire lodging-house population of our larger cities, in order that one may appreciate the classes of men from among whom the vagrant is drawn and the conditions which bring about his manufacture. Roughly stated, there are three general classes of men inhabiting the cheap lodging houses of our great cities.

In the first class are laboring men without families or home ties who work all or most of the year and expect to support themselves by their own exertions. The majority of them work in the harvest fields, on the lakes and railroads, and in other forms of summer work. These men are thrown out of work in the latter part of November or early in December, and remain idle during the rest of the winter. They are not always so from choice, but it is readily to be seen that when several thousand of these unanchored workmen are thrown upon the city at one time, they cannot all be at once absorbed by its industries. The men have as a rule from one to two or three months' wages in hand. They generally pay the entire winter's room rent in advance in order that they may be sure of shelter in any event. Many of them deposit the remainder of their wages either with the lodging house keeper or in a savings bank. These savings are variously spent during the winter according to the tastes and habits of the particular workmen; but the life of these men during the winter is scarcely of a sort to encourage thrift or any other virtue. Massed together, several hundred in a lodging house without wife or children or any sort of home life to soften or restrain them, living in complete idleness three or four months of the year, it is hardly to be wondered at that drunkenness and gambling are common among them and that decent men degenerate among such associations. When the man's money is gone, usually about January or February, sometimes later, he looks for work. A few find it, street-cleaning, ice-cutting, etc., but others turn tramp, drift and beg for the remainder of the winter, and perhaps eventually remain in this sort of life, although as a rule the men in the group which we are considering are rather independent in spirit and when work opens up in the spring go back to it with a will and are glad to shake off the winter's idleness.

In the second class of lodging-house men should be placed the unfortunate men in real need, of whom there are a large number drifting about in any great city: strangers who have been robbed: men coming to the city who fail through lack of references or a knowledge of the city: many of these are decent

fellows, clerks and office men from other cities, who are ashamed to let their families know their situation. When their money is exhausted they often pawn everything they possess and actually almost starve before they finally secure the work that brings them back into the first class, or, losing their courage, drift down into the lowest class. In this group also are men who have been dismissed from the hospitals before they are able to work; and men who have met with slight accidents which only temporarily prevent them from working. The number of such men is very large. There are also many young boys, runaways who have left home usually on account of some trifling misunderstanding or quarrel with a member of the family, although in many cases a mere spirit of adventure, the *wanderlust or* "road fever," as they themselves call it, seems to have been the only cause of their starting out.

The third general class is the largest and is composed of the men who present our most difficult problem. They are the social parasites, whether from choice or from the force of circumstances. In this group are beggars of all sorts, blind people, crippled, deformed men, local vagrants, old men, incapables, clothing-beggars, confidence men, petty thieves, barrel-house men. It may seem unfair to class old men, and blind and crippled with tramps, petty thieves and men of that type, but upon analysis this is not so unfair as it appears. They are all living, not by their own exertions, but upon the earnings of the community from which they are begging. While this begging is not always from choice and in many cases begins from absolute necessity, nevertheless it is found that often when given an opportunity to be self-supporting these men continue the vagrancy and begging from choice. The line between the tramp and the petty thief is a narrow one frequently crossed.

How are these three classes of men housed?

First, in the cheap lodging houses where they can stay for from ten to twenty-five cents a night. There are two hundred such lodging houses in Chicago; some better than others, but all on the same general plan, and all housing a very mixed group of men, so that good men and bad, professional beggars and young boys are all thrown together. The Salvation Army

and the American Volunteers have some lodging houses in the region which are of the same grade as the others. Below the grade of the lowest lodging-houses are the "barrel-houses," of which there are between forty and fifty in Chicago, in which hundreds of men in certain seasons of the year spend the night. They are not lodging houses but saloons of the lowest grade. They have no bar; the liquor is drawn from the barrels about the room and the men sleep on the filthy floors. One night last winter nearly a thousand were found sleeping in these resorts. Until the present year the police stations furnished a great number of lodgings. In the year 1901, 92,591 lodgings were given, and in spite of the fact that the Municipal Lodging House was opened the next year and furnished 11,097 lodgings, the police stations still accommodated 5,740. These police lodgings were given partly because the men applied for them after the closing hour of the Municipal Lodging House, partly because they applied in outlying stations many miles from the Municipal Lodging House, but largely from the indifference of the police to the order to refer all such men to the Municipal Lodging House.

What general agencies are at work in the city trying to benefit lodging-house men?

The Bureau of Charities is one and is the organization with whose work I am the most familiar, having been for several years in charge of the district which deals with the largest number of men of this class. Workingmen rarely apply to the Bureau and if they do, they ask only for work. Its applications come almost entirely from men of the second and third classes, unfortunates in real need, or the parasites, those who are beaten or the beaters.

The interview and investigation of the Bureau is a sorting process, to determine to what class a man belongs and whether he is in any way helpable. There is an effort to furnish adequate and immediate help when necessary, and to do preventive work, especially with young boys. There is a question as regards the advisability of trying correctional work through the Bureau of Charities.

Another agency in our city which is doing excellent work is the Municipal Lodging House. This was established somewhat over a year ago, chiefly through the efforts of the City Homes Association, which equipped the Lodging House and turned it over to the city, which now maintains it. In addition to giving the men a bath, food and lodging in return for work, the Municipal Lodging House aims to do everything it can to reinstate the men who apply for lodgings, in their proper places in the industrial and social world. The sick are referred to the county hospital or to the dispensaries. Those needing special assistance are referred to the Bureau of Charities; others are returned to their homes in other cities, special transportation being secured through the Bureau of Charities. Still others are referred to the Poorhouse at Dunning, and there is a large number for whom work is found. There were 2,397 men given employment last year through the direct efforts of the Municipal Lodging House.

And yet, in spite of its ideals and its excellent work, some of us feel strongly that the Municipal Lodging House fails to solve the vagrancy problem in any city. There are several reasons for this and they seem to be inevitable. In the first place it does not reach the lowest and most dangerous class of the lodging house men. The patrons of the Municipal Lodging House are mainly from the better grades of such men, the unfortunate, and the workingmen out of work; that most dangerous class, the parasites, avoid it strictly, and even among the first and second class of men it is the exception rather than the rule when they go to the Municipal Lodging House, and they do so only when they have no other possible way of maintaining themselves. This is largely due to the fact that the Lodging House is a police institution, and men of independence and refinement shrink from the questions of the officer in charge, however kindly put, and from the publicity of the street-work test. As an illustration of the fact that the Lodging House falls short of solving the problem in regard to the vagrant and homeless man of the city, the following figures may be of interest: In the year 1901, 92,591 police lodgings were given. In 1902 the Municipal Lodging House was established

and gave 11,097 lodgings. In the same year the police gave 5,740 lodgings, making a total of 16,837 lodgings altogether furnished by the city in 1902, as against the 92,591 police lodgings of the previous year, a difference of 75,754. Where were these 75,000 men lodged? These are the men whom we must reach.

If the Municipal Lodging House fails to solve the problem how shall it be solved? How can we prevent the men of the first and second class from dropping down into the third? How can we lift men from the third class into the first, and what steps should be taken to stop the steady and dangerous increase in this third class, especially among our young American men and boys?*

These are questions that this Conference and thoughtful people throughout the country wish to consider and solve as nearly as possible. That tramps and vagabonds shall be wholly eliminated few anticipate, but that the number will be greatly reduced and not steadily increased, we must all hope.

Among the possible remedies which occur to one from a study of the problem in the city of Chicago I would mention the following:

(*a*) Better housing for the first and second class so that decent men and young boys need not necessarily be associated with vagrants, beggars and petty thieves, and may have clean and inexpensive lodgings.

(*b*) Adequate, immediate and intelligent help for the second class.

(*c*) A general and persistent use by the public of the Bureau of Charities and Municipal Lodging Houses, with especial work along the line of educating the community not to give outdoor relief.

(d) Special vagrancy police in large cities, with strict enforcement of existing and the passing of better laws in some states.

(*e*) Longer and indeterminate sentences for vagrants.

* Last year almost one thousand boys under twenty were accommodated at the Lodging and there were almost three thousand between the ages of twenty and thirty.

(*f*) Absolute closing for lodging purposes of police stations, also closing the barrel-houses and the lowest grade of lodging houses.

(*g*) Closer coöperation between Municipal Lodging Houses, charity organizations and other agencies dealing with this class in different parts of the country in order that an exchange of information may be effected, and vagrants arrested and sent to the Houses of Correction, in each city, until they shall become discourged and give up begging.

(*h*) The enforcement by the railroads of their laws against carrying this class of citizens free of all expense. If the tramp has to walk along the turnpike to get from place to place, his wanderings will not go so far afield, and as soon as these men are definitely confined to certain localities it will be a simpler matter to deal with them. Each community can then work out plans for its own salvation, and try the various correctional, preventive and helpful methods of dealing with these men which seems best in the particular locality.

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[This is by no means complete, since I have selected only those of practical value and arranged them somewhat in order of merit. No magazines used prior to 1890 or since December, '02. F. A. K.]

METHODS EMPLOYED BY AMERICAN CITIES TO ERADICATE VAGRANCY.

The following tabular statement of the methods employed by American cities to eradicate vagrancy, also the selected bibliography on the subject of vagrancy, tramps, etc., was prepared by Mr. Benjamin C. Marsh, of the University of Pennsylvania. During the winter of 1902-03 Mr. Marsh, in the interest of the Philadelphia Society for Organizing Charity, investigated homeless cases coming to the Wayfarer's Lodge, and also made a study of vagrancy and vagrants both by visiting their lodging houses and by following their trade upon the street. During the summer of 1903, Mr. Marsh is to study the treatment of vagrants in France and Great Britain.

Mr. Marsh's conclusions, based upon investigation of the past year and the tables hereafter submitted, are as follows:

CONCLUSIONS.

The results of this investigation of methods of dealings with beggars, vagrants and tramps in American and Canadian municipalities led to four conclusions:

First. The imperative need for uniformity of legislation in the states on these subjects to that there will not be any incentive for the classes to wander from one state to another where the statutes and enforcement thereof are less drastic.

Second. The treatment of these classes should be under the state statutes and not by city ordinances. While this might work hardship in certain cases, the more general enforcement of a few necessary regulations would ensue.

Third. These classes can never be eliminated until the public be educated to intelligent instead of promiscuous giving, and the government be granted the right to place any citizen who, after long effort, has proved his inability adequately to support himself or family — in some institution where he will not be a menace to society, but enabled and compelled to work until he loves it, or acquires an unalterable hatred therefor.

Fourth. The best method of treatment of these classes now in operation is that of Boston, working under the state laws. This method involves —

(a) Compulsory bathing in all lodging houses.

(b) Careful supervision and frequent visitation of the lodging houses by the buildings, health and police officials.

(c) Supervision over admission to the poor house, and the commitment to the state farm of habitual vagrants who apply for such admission.

(d) A state farm to which these classes may be sentenced on indeterminate or cumulative sentences.

(e) The prohibition of begging and vagrancy.

In addition, two features from the New York and Chicago system may be adopted, the registration and identification of beggars as in vogue in New York, and the effort to secure employment for men, and the arrangement with the city to have men work on the streets, which is carried on by the Chicago Municipal Lodging House.

INDIVIDUAL VAGRANTS.

BY JAMES FORBES, SPECIAL OFFICER OF THE CHARITY ORGANIZATION SOCIETY, NEW YORK CITY.

The Charity Organization Society of New York is seeking to eliminate professional mendicancy in that city by means of a specially detailed mendicancy police consisting of three officers acting under the direct supervision of the society. In New York, at least, all mendicants may be divided into two classes — local and migratory. The first class consists for the most part of those who by modern philanthropy would be classified as dependents and defectives. The second class — smaller, but more active and dangerous — is distinctly delinquent.

To the former class it is possible to apply in some measure Charity Organization Society principles of individual treatment, though the actual, as well as technical, vagrancy of a greater part even of that class presents appreciable difficulties.

With the second class, existing agencies are at a distinct disadvantage except in so far as purely repressive local measures are concerned, owing to the fact that there exists no general plan of co-operation by which anti-mendicancy measures may be made effective over an area as great as that traversed by the individual vagrant mendicant.

In these days of plentiful employment the tramp class is more than ever a criminal class. The safe-blower and the vagrant mendicant are its true representatives, and there is no moral difference between them. Both are essentially criminal; both reap the advantages which accrue from the disorganized front presented by society to their depredations. An organization national in scope is a necessity in order to deal justly and adequately with the situation.

There is ample justification in experience for the statement that police organizations will not effect the desired result, even if it were desirable that they should. To keep the "yegg" cracksman in hand the American Bankers' Protective Association has to contract with private repressive agencies, and to eliminate the

"yegg" mendicant is a task which, to be successfully performed, will necessitate the active co-operation of private organizations and police departments, in which the latter will occupy a subordinate position. This relation appears to be the correct one, even apart from the practical consideration likely to dictate such a conclusion. The reformatory ideas of philanthropy include repressive agencies only so far as necessary to prepare for the commencement of constructive work.

Granted that some national plan for the administration of the mendicant and the rehabilitation of the individual be practicable, the first preventive step to be attained would be an efficient policing of the railroads. Police the railroads thoroughly and you end trampdom and solve the problem of the 'yeggman' at least. If a safe-blower, and determined to pursue a criminal career, he must adapt himself to such other lines of criminal effort as opportunity may offer, and, compelled to operate within restricted areas heavily policed, he loses many of the advantages possessed as a guerilla. If a mendicant, and determined to continue as such, he is also handicapped, though under existing circumstances in but a lesser degree, because he is likely to profit by the indifference of city police departments toward offenders of his class. Efficient local mendicancy committees are absolutely essential to prevent police toleration of all classes of mendicants.

Meanwhile, the railroads closed and the cities "hostile," what of those energies which formerly found expression in violence and mendicancy Utterly repressed they cannot be, and upon society will rest the responsibility of diverting them into productive channels."

XI.

The Insane.

FOR WHAT CLASSES SHOULD THE STATE MAKE PROVISION?

BY J. T. SEARCY.

The State draws two somewhat arbitrary lines through society within which it sets apart, in classes by themselves, two kinds of persons. Beyond one line it places those whom it classes as criminal; beyond the other, it places the insane. The State reserves to itself the right to make these classifications. No one but the State has the authority to pronounce a man criminal or insane—to call a man a knave or a fool.

Instinctively, however, we all have the habit of grading the persons with whom we are associated in two particulars, somewhat similar in principle to the State's classifications. We rate every man we meet as to his mental and his moral qualifications. It is very important we should know our associates in these particulars. In the competitive life in which we live, we have instinctively acquired the habit of judging a man's intellectual abilities; and it is equally essential we should know his "moral habits," or the way he conducts himself, in accordance with rules of decency and propriety. Men jealously guard their reputations in these particulars, and hold it as an offence to be spoken of derogatively in either regard. Still, there is a strong undercurrent, privately carried on, in every community, of exchanges of opinions in these matters. Many of our ordinary conversations are on these subjects. We pride ourselves often on our ability to judge persons in these particulars—on being good "judges of character." We sometimes claim that we can carry our estimates to such a degree of fineness and efficiency, we can make a fair opinion of a man from the cut of his coat, the tone

of his voice, his hand-writing, or his step on the pavement. We can sum him up on first sight, we say.

In the eyes of the law, behind which questioned characters often retreat, a person is held good and innocent or mentally sane and capable, until the contrary has been proven after a due legal process. We all know how incorrect this assumption often is on the part of such persons. We are sometimes led into embarrassments, to say no more, by our efforts to give or to obtain correct information about certain parties.

I have seen the assertion, made before this Conference, that, though the State makes it, in reality, there is no "criminal class," because there are so many hidden types of moral obliquity that never come within the cognizance of the law, and because all convicts are not equally bad. In the same way, we can say, there is no " insane class," because there are milder degrees of mental aberrancy that never send a person to an insane hospital, and because there are grades of mental defectiveness in these institutions. Practically speaking, within the hospitals there are only the extreme or exaggerated grades of the same kinds of aberrancies that can be found at large in the world. Neither of the state's lines is altogether a correct guide, but is blurred over from both directions.

However, because the state reserves to itself the right to say who are "the insane," and has denominated the institutions, in which it cares for them, "insane hospitals," it is very safe to hold that insanity is that grade of any kind of mental deficiency or defectiveness which brings the person within the cognizance and jurisdiction of the state's law. If, in our opinion, a person is sufficiently mentally wrong for the state to intervene in his case, we can call him insane, though he may draw us into court to prove our assertion.

The term psychosis is being scientifically used nowadays, by those who treat mental maladies, as a substitute for the word insanity, about which there has been so much contention and ambiguity. There are many kinds and all grades of psychosis. The term insanity is left, for popular use, to designate the graver forms of mental deficiency or defectiveness, such as bring the person within the jurisdiction of the law. We all know persons,

who have some form of psychosis, not grave enough to be called insanity.

The state takes cognizance of the graver grades of psychosis for a number of purposes; for instance, for the purpose of preventing a man's voting, marrying, testifying, or managing his business; or for the purpose of invalidating another's will, contract, or conveyance of property; or to absolve another who has committed a crime from the penalty of the law; or to remove another from society because he is dependent or delinquent and send him to a hospital for care and treatment. These are some of the more prominent purposes for which the state estimates the grade of a man's psychosis, and designates him mentally unsound, non-compos, lunatic, or insane.

In any of these cases, the object of the legal investigation is to determine the grade of the man's mental disqualification; whether it is sufficiently grave for the court to assume jurisdiction of him for the purpose for which the inquisition is held. I believe I am right in using the word inquisition, in place of trial, in these cases. The legal procedure is not a trial for any offence, but an inquisition as to the grade of the man's mental impairment. I wish to get as far as possible from the old idea that the insane man is a felon or even a prisoner. The verdict of the court is not a conviction or a sentence. The paper that sends the person to a hospital should be in the form of a certificate, that, in the opinion of the court, the man's mental disability is sufficiently grave for him to be sent to such an institution for care and reatment. Although, in some cases, he is an offensive or a delinquent member of society, the court recognizes that he is so, because of mental disability.

For one or two centuries the states have been caring for the insane. It is true, the State first took up the work because public safety and welfare demanded it; because some insane are offensive and dangerous and the state had to make provision for them. It is a popular idea to-day that institutions for the care of the insane are filled with "raving maniacs." I seldom see a stranger visit such an institution, even though he may be highly intelligent, who does not go away with his ideas very radically

and favorably changed as to the character of the patients and the management they have.

I think, however, for convenience, because the idea seems to be irrevocably fixed, it is best to still hold to the original definition of the word insane, as meaning a mentally defective person, who is a menace to property, to his own safety, or to the peace, welfare or safety of others, to such a degree that the state ought to or has to take charge of him. I would have the term insanity relate only to the more objectionable kinds and grades, and use other terms to designate more harmless psychosis.

There are many kinds of psychosis and varying grades of each kind. For instance, there is the not infrequent psychosis we call hysteria. We would not think of calling the very large majority of cases of hysteria insanity, still, in some instances it does reach such a grade that we would not hesitate in pronouncing the person insane. Again, neurasthenia is a very prevalent psychosis, particularly so, it is said, in America. "Nervousness" is its most usual symptom. In the large majority of cases, we would not call neurasthenics insane. Sometimes, however, the malady does reach such a grade that the court readily sends one to a hospital. Again, there are the paranoiacs, commonly called "cranks," the eccentricities and peculiarities of whose psychosis, in most cases, would not attract the serious attention of an officer; some of them, however, are exceedingly troublesome characters, and some are very dangerous citizens under their cranky delusions. Again, by far the larger part of the epileptics are only disagreeable members of society by reason of their convulsions. Of others, there are more serious grades of dependency and delinquency, until they are not at all responsible for their acts. Again, the weak-minded show all grades of amentia, by which is meant an all-round want or deficiency of mentality since childhood, in distinction from dementia, which means an all-round loss or failure of mentality following a previous normal condition. The aments range from the simply feeble-minded, who can be taught or trained considerably towards their self-support, through the imbeciles, who can be taught very little, to the idiots, who cannot be taught at all. The dements range in mentality from the first stages of terminal, precocious or senile dementia,

to the final condition, when they have become permanent dullards and dotards. Again, there is the paretic, in the beginning stages of whose progressive psychosis, even his intimate friends do not recognize his mental defectiveness, though his business may be going to ruin, yet he finally reaches a stage when he is "sans everything" of mental value. Again, the drink and the drug habitués furnish long lists of psycho-pathologic cases, among whom it is often difficult to say when the law should intervene to send them to a hospital or to declare them not responsible. Again, mania in the text-books furnishes more varieties and more technical names than any other kind of psychosis. For this class the State first provided hospitals, and they generally are the cases of most easy diagnosis. Still, of mania there are all grades. Again, of melancholia there are many kinds with different names, of all grades, ranging from simple anxious-mindedness to the deepest depression and mental misery.

I have gone over this list of principal kinds of the psychoses to show that they differ from each other, and differ in their own degrees of deficiency and defectiveness.

In coming to my subject proper and attempting to answer the question as to what kinds of mentally disqualified persons shall the state provide for, I have certainly opened a broad field, but I believe I can shorten my reply into a few words. In this presence, before so many who have had great experience in such work, I am ready to say that the state ought to care for all kinds.

State-care is, generally speaking, a great deal better than home-care, and neighborhood, municipal, or county-care. These, as a rule, have proved notoriously insufficient, improper, and often inhuman. I need not now go into any argument to show why state-care is the best. That straw was thrashed over years ago. That proposition was the text of much philanthropic agitation and discussion, when the building of insane hospitals by the states was first inaugurated and extended over the country. Nowadays the question is not state-care as opposed to other care, but whether state-care shall be extended so as to include not only the delinquent insane, but all who are so mentally deficient that they are dependent characters. The last question of the day is: In what order, in accordance with the numbers to be provided

for and the state's financial ability, shall these classes be taken in hand, and how many of the classes shall be looked after in separate institutions?

As a rule states begin this kind of work by providing for the insane proper, the delinquent types, first. These generally are the nucleus, about which other types accumulate; and as they increase in the state, or in the state hospitals, they are separated off into other institutions by themselves.

Mentally deficient paupers are generally cared for in the county-houses. There is a division of opinion as to whether the aments and the dements shall be cared for entirely by the state, or the county-care be supplemented by state help.

There is one principle, however, that seems to be quite firmly established in this connection, that there should be state-supervision of all mentally disqualified persons.

It seems to be quite generally assumed or admitted that all mentally disqualified persons are the wards of the state, wherever they are, in private institutions, in town charities, in the county alms-houses, boarded out in private families, or "cared for" after dismissal. State supervision is considered necessary in order to insure proper care and to prevent abuses. There are a number of methods of carrying out this principle.

There is, also, nowadays, another step in the evolution of state-care—whether all classes of the mentally disqualified should be cared for in large state institutions, or whether some of the classes, at least, are not better maintained and treated in enirely separate hospitals. No doubt the principle is a good one to separate the classes, and this is generally done as far as the means and the numbers allow, into separate wards in the same hospital, or into separate buildings in the same colony, or into separate hospitals in different parts of the state. In some states there is an approach to what may be called a colony of hospitals, under the same management in the same locality. The principle of classification, and more or less separation as far as it can be practically carried out, is the best method. The expense is lessened the more you can consolidate the maintenance, but for the excellence of the treatment and control, there is a limit to the

amount of proper segregation. The accessibility of the institutions in the state also has to be considered.

The latest move in this direction in some states, is separate institutions, generally located near large cities, for the reception of new patients. It is true, new cases generally do better to be received and cared for separately from the others, and when their numbers warrant it and the expense can be borne, it is well to have such provision made as far as it can be done. Some new cases get well promptly in such institutions and are saved the opprobrium of having been sent to an insane hospital, where the incurables are kept, and if the name of the institution be simply a reception or a psychopathic hospital, where the doubtful or readily curable cases alone are kept, more early consent on the part of the families and the patients may be obtained for them to go to the place. In such institutions, however, patients will accumulate, unless they are promptly sent further when a chronic tendency is shown.

The proper management of the mentally disqualified is a much larger factor in their improvement than their medication—not to under-rate the latter; and proper management, including all forms of teaching, training, exercise, diversion, and employment, as well as scientific examination and treatment, are better done when the same class are in sufficient numbers associated together; their similar characteristics can be brought under more similarly arranged control, in the same wards, buildings, or hospitals.

In the locating of a state hospital for any class of patients, a most important feature I consider is abundant lands surrounding it, to allow the free use of out-door exercise and employment. I sympathize with the superintendent who is crowded into a few lots and high walls in the neighborhood of a large city, where lack of grounds for strolls and farms, as well as the constantly prying eyes of the curious and the captious, hamper the out-door life and employment of the patients, particularly of the worst grades. No remedial agent equals out-door life, particularly out-door employment for a large number of any class of patients.

The wards in the same hospital, the buildings in the colony, or the separate institutions for the same class of the disqualified,

should in their different construction and in their different management be arranged for the different grades of that class. The moving of a patient from one ward to another, to a better or a lower grade, serves often as an excellent remedial measure. The discipline, if we may call it such, of these changes, is understood by most patients and has a beneficent effect. The principle, involved in it, is not punishment nor is it particularly a reward, but is a readjustment of class according to the varying condition of the patient. The same may be said of seclusion; in most cases it should be a form of "rest-cure" separation, not a punishment.

Epileptic colonies are a recent step in the separation of a class. They are serving a most excellent purpose. When insane, the epileptics are not suitable patients associated with the others in a hospital. I would have the colonies provided with separate buildings, properly constructed, so that those who are insane can be kept in the same institution under the same general treatment as the others.

Again, I think it highly important that provision should be made in every state for the keeping and treatment of inebriates and drug-habitués. They form a very objectionable class of patients associated with the others in an insane hospital. They return soon after the withdrawal of the drink or drug, as they feel and claim, to a normal mentality, which renders them troublesome cases to hold and control, long before, in the opinion of the officers, they are sufficiently restored to be trusted at large again. Their spells of drink-craze often return like recurrent mania or epilepsy, and it generally takes months to effect a cure. A separate institution should be provided for them and their mode of committal should partake more of a trial for crime, than of an inquisition. Their terms, in my opinion, should be determined by the court and not be less than for three months, longer if thought necessary, and their release should always be on probation. The peace, comfort, safety, and welfare of other persons demand the establishment of such institutions, not to mention the safety of the inebriate himself.

There is a psychosis recognized, nowadays, in its extreme grades, which occasions the disqualification of those who are

usually called "moral imbeciles," "ethical perverts," "the recidivists" of our courts. Although possessing mental abilities of a higher grade than their moral abilities, so that they are able "to know right from wrong," they are inherently "unable to hold to the right or to avoid doing the wrong." These form a real class of the disqualified and are a difficult class to deal with. They do not belong in the insane hospitals because of their intelligence, nor ought they to be repeatedly punished, which does no good; they are inherently incorrigible. Some separate provision should be made for them.

A number of other separate institutions for the mentally disqualified have been inaugurated in the states and others have been suggested, as soon as numbers and finances allow them. The principle is a good one to separate the classes. A number of the institutions for better supervision and maintenance could be arranged in the same locality into a colony of hospitals. Some of the other institutions that have been inaugurated in the states are, schools for the feeble-minded, homes for the aged, "family-care" colonies for the harmless, hospitals for the criminal insane, for the chronic insane, for the negro insane, etc., etc.

I can only allude to another question in connection with the management of state institutions which is in its trial stage. It is whether state hospitals shall be kept under the management of local boards, or all consolidated under the management of one board of control. The tendency seems to be to consolidate the management or the supervision at least, under a single state board.

Before I close, I would like to draw attention to a growing feature in the management of penal institutions, which marks a very favorable change, from the standpoint I have been advocating in this paper, of grades of human abilities of all kinds. A century or two ago, when men's abilities were considered "free and equal," the insane were treated like the criminals; nowadays, there is a tendency to treat the criminals like the insane.

A proper move was made when the insane were separated into institutions by themselves. These were first called asylums in imitation of the old cities-of-refuge to which the accused could

flee from the officers of the law; now they are called hospitals for the benign care and treatment of patients.

Some of the methods of handling insane persons are now entering the prisons and penitentiaries. The fact is now recognized that all men are not only not alike mentally, but they are not equally capable morally. Knowledge of this latter fact has begun to invade the penal laws; for this reason, for the same crime, men are sometimes now not held equally responsible. The modern methods make the first object of penal laws to be the improvement of human society; by their deterrent effect; by their educational effect as to what is right and wrong; by their removal from society for greater and lesser lengths of time of wrong-doers; and, lately, by the improvement of those under sentence so that they will be more capable of good citizenship when they return to society. Even capital punishment is being more and more regarded, not as the retaliation of an angry court, but the permament removal, for the good of society, of one of its most refractory members.

The tendency is to rob the picture of Justice of her avenging sword: she holds her scales, but weighs in the balances the grade of the criminal as well as the grade of his crime. We now take out of law the feature of vengeance, revenge, anger, and retaliation. A legal recognition of grades of moral abilities has introduced the indeterminate sentence, the reformatory, probation, paroles, and pardons. As in the insane hospitals, we now find graded classifications in the penal institutions; all looking to the inherent fitness or unfitness of the prisoners for proper life inside and outside the walls; the young criminals of the reformatories rise and fall, in the changes into the different grades, towards and away from their liberation. All this points to the fact that some criminals should never be allowed to go at large in society, while others, who have been placed over the penal state line, should be recognized as capable of making good citizens again.

One of the objects of my paper is to draw attention to the fact, that all through society, different men differ in their qualifications for citizenship. The same man varies also, at different times, according to his age and his mental or cerebral health.

Two factors have entered into the make-up of every man—his heredity and his environment. Little has been done, so far in the world, to improve the man's heredity. Much of the beneficiary work of the members of this Conference relates to the improvement of the environment of the deficient, the defective, and the delinquent classes. The effect of the first factor, heredity, however, persists, and accounts for many of our failures and our disappointments; and the same factor enters in, to mar and impede training and educational work of all kinds everywhere in society.

PSYCHOPATHIC HOSPITALS.

BY MARY A. SPINK, M. D., MEMBER OF THE BOARD OF STATE CHARITIES, INDIANAPOLIS, INDIANA.

It is but a few centuries ago, as we look back at the centuries that have been,— when the civilization of that period either had no insane persons to deal with, or did not recognize mental disease as a subject for either legal or medical treatment. In all probability those insane, if homicidal, or criminal in their tendencies, were put to death, and those who desired to commit suicide were permitted to do so, while those who were harmless wandered about at their own desire, and thus the matter of the insane was simply and easily disposed of. Not until Christian civilization had arisen from the Dark Ages and shed its light for nearly four hundred years, had a single step been taken toward the proper care of the insane. The first general hospital we have record of in history, was established at the end of the fourth century by a Roman lady, Fabiola by name, and it is likely that among the sick poor for whom her hospital was established were many insane persons, but the first hospital for that class was established at Jerusalem about one hundred years later; by whom, or how conducted is unfortunately lost to history.

Little mention is made of lunatics until the reign of Edward I. of England when laws were enacted whereby the king became

guardian of such persons: the enactment reads "The King shall have the custody of the lands of natural fools taking the profits of them without waste or destruction, and shall find them with necessaries." In the crown was also vested the care of those who were occasionally insane, and liable to waste their property.

From the time of Edward I. it has been conceded in nearly all countries that insane persons should be secluded from society, not so much for the good of the insane, nor that any steps were taken to restore the afflicted, but purely for the comfort and safety of society at large; this was strictly a legal treatment of the insane who were kept in prisons rather than in hospitals, and it is only within two hundred and fifty years that lunacy has become a medico-legal question.

When the first real hospitals for the treatment of the insane were placed under medical supervision but little was known of the causes or pathology of mental derangement; the science of hygiene was unheard of; the physician walked daily through the loathsome prison house, bleeding some, or nearly all, administering emetics and purgatives indiscriminately; all patients were fed alike — like hogs,— and with but little better food. Such was the condition of the insane in Great Britain and America up to 1827.

Thirty-five years before the English speaking world awoke to the fact that insanity was a diseased condition and required even more skill and care in its treatment than any other malady, Pinel and Esquirol had demonstrated in the hospitals of Paris that a prison was not a fit place to keep persons afflicted with mental disease; that cruel restraint was a positive injury and good food, kindly care and comfort a necessity for recovery from the malady. From this reformation started by Pinel in 1782 in France, England followed with rapid strides, and the influence soon reached America. Then was manifested our Yankee characteristic to not only do, but to outdo, and frequently overdo, the reformatory work.

In the United States there seems to have been a rivalry between the states as to which should have the most magnificent and palatial structure for the keeping of the insane. State vies with state in the great expenditure for hospitals for those men-

tally afflicted, to which politicians and statesmen point with pride. The fact is that most of these institutions have been constructed by legislative committees or commissions who employ some favorite architect, who, influenced by the unrestrained expenditure, constructs a building combining the maximum of architectural display with the minimum of comfort and convenience for the inmates; all to be admired and gazed at with pride! And these structures are to house, to keep, from a few hundred to a few thousand insane persons whose curability does not in the least depend upon the outside of the buildings, and, except the paranoiac who imagines he owns the whole thing, few regard the architectural features with any degree of comfort or pleasure. The very fact that but few hospitals in the United States have been built under the supervision of men familiar with the requirements for treatment of the insane will account in a great degree for these gigantic monstrosities of architectural absurdities.

The error all along the line in caring for the insane, has been, in brief, too much building, and too little bread. That liberality shown by legislators in voting funds for buildings which please the public, is overshadowed by the meanest kind of parsimony when it limits the maintenance to a sum which would scarcely keep a well man up, and could never build up the broken constitutions which make up the ward population of the average hospital for insane; that liberality of state legislators which constructs spectacular palaces and gardens to be gazed at by the admiring voter, cuts down the physician's fee to such a meagre line that but few ever remain in public employ long enough to distinguish one form of insanity from another, and whose treatment of all cases would be the same.

Not only is there an illiberality in the food supply but in medical assistance. No one physician can properly observe, examine, and prescribe for fifty general patients per day, yet, in most hospitals, the assistant physician, who probably has but a few months experience, is placed in charge of a hundred patients whose ailments are far more complicated and difficult to distinguish than would be five hundred persons with general diseases which they could well describe. Insanity is a generic word; it

is the symptom frequently of many diseases. In a ward of thirty patients the cases represented might be likened to a library of as many volumes, in as many different dialects or languages. Therefore, it is necessary for the physician to master each and translate the same into intelligence. This view of the case has been growing among American alienists within the past ten years, and is being recognized by the public in that it demands a more rational management and medical treatment of the menally afflicted,— a treatment which shall have for its object, not the keeping of the insane in hospitals until by the process of nature they either die or get well, but by the careful study of each case by persons qualified by education and long experience as alienists that the patient may recover speedily and be no longer a burden to the state. The broken mind is like a broken bone which in the hands of the skillful surgeon recovers without deformity, but when neglected, or in the hands of the unskilled, results in a lifetime of pain and ugliness.

The demand of the present day portends reform in medical management. Well educated medical men are no doubt employed as hospital superintendents, but the general practitioner is not an alienist until by years of practical work among the insane he has become a psychologist as well as a physiologist.

One of the great errors in large hospitals is that patients are received and placed upon whatever ward there may be a vacancy. In but few state hospitals is it possible to classify the case, and even if classified, there is little or no possibility of special study and treatment. In fact, most of our public hospitals are but a great aggregation of the mentally deformed massed together without regard to method or means of reducing that deformity.

It is true that a few state institutions for the insane have special wards for treating those who are confined to bed, but in most instances the patient is put to bed on a general ward, subject to noise and confusion, and, possibly personal disturbance. In two or three instances a separate building is provided for cases of current disease or surgical treatment, but the mistaken economy of trustees rarely permits the employment of suf-

ficient medical talent or skilled nurses to make such hospitals of much value in the cure of insanity.

It has been my purpose in the foregoing sketch to indicate the condition of the insane, and their treatment during the past century to this time. I will now give my views as to what I consider a better method of dealing with them, with the view solely to their recovery. For sixteen years I have constantly lived with, observed and treated the insane, both in state institutions and private hospitals. It is my opinion that we are on the verge of a great reform looking to a better knowledge of causation and of treatment. While I think the kind of hospitals we have been constructing in America are examples of financial error and medical mistakes, they are not useless but may be converted into a combination of asylum and factory to be used solely by the quiet, chronic, and presumably incurable insane. A department which need not be very large might be set aside for the active treatment of certain classes. My observation has taught me that segregation of the acute insane is by far preferable to the aggregation system. One reason that the percentage of recoveries from mental affections in our hospitals is so small, and recurrent insanity so frequent, is that families abhor the thought of sending one of their members to a hospital as long as they can possibly manage to care for them at home, whereas the probabilities of recovery are lessened by the lapse of time between the attack and the proper treatment. To remove this barrier to early treatment, let the phrase "Hospital for Insane" be dropped as a legal designation; let all new places for treatment of mental diseases be designated as "Psychopathic Homes," or "Observation Pavillions," any cognomen that does not stamp the patient as adjudged insane, and so entered upon the records of the county clerk. Early treatment is at all times the first and most important thing for the patient. The second requisite is that the patients be removed from their home surroundings to a place where that constant observation may be given which is required to properly study and treat the case. It is true that with some few patients the emotional forms of psychical aberration may pass away at their homes, but the risk of graver forms of disease is too great to make the experiment worth while.

Well-equipped cottage hospitals, or observation pavilions with room for fifteen to twenty patients should be constructed near each state institution, and in these all acute cases should be received and kept for from thirty to ninety days. Here it is that the case should have the most careful and scientific attention of the most skilled alienist, the most faithful and well trained corps of nurses, the best cuisine, and all of the appliances known to be of use in the treatment of such persons. Here a fuller history of the patient and the patient's parents and hereditary constitution should be obtained, studied and recorded. To study the constitutional tendencies of an insane person is difficult: it is that which is of vital importance however, and it can never be successfully carried out on the wards of a hospital where the observers are only the attendants, and, those attendants not usually selected on account of natural abilitiy or long training. By the way, almost any honest person may become a fair nurse by training for general hospital work, but a "psychical nurse" if I may use the term, is born, not made, and when found is of more value than all other adjuncts to the treatment of he insane.

Dr. John Abernethy, the great physician of London a hundred years ago, used to say: "Let me know the constitution, the blood tendencies, of my patient, and I don't care what disease he has, or what you call it, I will cure him on the constitutional line.' It is only by means of the observation hospital that this requisite knowledge can be obtained.

I would suggest that all cities having a population of twenty thousand or more be required to have a detention home or hospital to which a person may be sent at any time upon the certificate of two reputable physicians and such persons there be cared for pending the time of regular commitment, and when so committed sent to the observation pavillion, and if found chronically insane, admitted to the wards of the general institution.

I would suggest that the National Conference of Charities lend its aid to encourage the establishment of schools, or of departments in established medical colleges for the study of psychiatria, and that students of high standing in that department only may become internes in hospitals for insane. Finally, that to en-

courage advancement in the treatment of the insane, higher salaries be paid, and the office of medical superintendent made a life position, except for cause. Attendants, who must be graduates of a training school, should have better pay, and should have permanent positions guaranteed them during good service and good behavior, and a graded system of advancement with increase of salary should come to those showing exceptional ability and merit.

RECEPTION HOSPITALS FOR THE INSANE.

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The tendency is toward more prompt and more efficient treatment for those who are mentally deranged. The necessity is greatest in the crowded centres of population.

The general hospital does not have suitable rooms, is not provided with proper accommodations nor with nurses trained in the care of the insane. General hospitals have not the authority for retention of mental cases.

To those who have had much to do with providing suitable accommodations and care for cases of acute and sudden mental derangement the fact has become very apparent that our present methods are almost without exception inadequate and faulty.

While nearly every state in this Union has provided in a princely fashion for the permanent care of the insane by building commodious and costly asylums and hospitals for them where they are cared for in the most humane and rational manner by a competent staff of especially trained physicians, nurses and other suitable attendants, yet these institutions are, in their present relation to the public need, not meeting the requirements of certain primary and acute conditions which attend the onset of cases of insanity in every community.

This is by no means the fault of those in charge of the asylums for the conditions to which I refer arise before the cases are brought to the notice of the asylum staff or consigned to their care.

Every community, rural or urban, is liable at any moment to have cases of insanity occurring within it. The more dense the population the more frequent this will be the case. The mental derangement may be primary or it may be symptomatic of some other disease. But its main features may be such as to create an immediate and imperative demand for appropriate and intelligent care lest the patient do serious injury either to himself or others.

A physician may be in attendance, or if not, one is summoned hastily and upon him the responsibility rests of directing the care and treatment of the patient. For the time being the customary ministrations of the physician are secondary to the necessity for physical restraint and suitable housing and nursing. The physician is helpless (perhaps unfamiliar with mental diseases), the relatives are in a commotion, the home is unsuited for proper care of one in this condition, no attendants experienced in dealing with cases of this nature are available, the patient is uncontrollable, excited, boisterous, sleepless, dangerous, or suicidal. A public or a private general hospital may be near at hand, but in them there is no provision for cases of this nature either in the way of suitable rooms or properly trained nurses. Moreover, our patient would disturb the other inmates and the restraint that would need to be exercised would require legal sanction, and for one or other of these various reasons he cannot be received. If the patient's family and friends are wealthy a private retreat may be found to which he could be at once removed, but if his case is one that comes under the requirements of statutory enactment in order to gain admission to a public asylum or hospital for mental disorders, protracted delay is customary and unavoidable in the majority of cases because of legal technicalities, even if the friends can be brought to recognize the necessity for it and induced to take prompt action.

There lingers still in the popular mind the idea of disgrace associated with asylum commitment, though under the healthful publicity of modern asylum management this conception is rapidly disappearing; but even assuming this obstacle removed the too frequent remoteness of the institution, the hope

entertained of a speedy recovery of the patient which might render such action unnecessary, or the dozen or more causes of delay that may arise to prevent speedy removal to suitable conditions for care and treatment, in too many instances result in serious and perhaps permanent damage to the patient, not to mention the great distress to all persons immediately concerned.

Acute cases of insanity like acute disease of the lungs, bowels or kidneys, should receive prompt diagnosis and appropriate treatment and yet the average general practitioner who has first to deal with such cases, in the great majority of instances, is found unprepared to meet the emergency and valuable time is lost. The varieties of insanity are many and the experience of physicians, other than specialists in this line, is too limited to familiarize them with the indications upon which to base a correct diagnosis. The need is apparent that skill of this kind should be more quickly available as well as the place and facilities for treatment if we are to get the best results in combatting diseases of this nature, or at least in providing for it most intelligent and appropriate management.

It is a disgrace to our civilization that we, in the most enlightened districts of this country, daily commit cases of acute insanity to the care of the police officer or the sheriff to be locked up in the cells of city prison or county jail, there to remain for days and perhaps weeks without suitable medical attendance.

And this occurs not because of an unfortunate blunder in recognition of the mental derangement, but solely for the reason that this is the only provision the community affords for the care and safety of such cases.

But a very general interest has been aroused looking to improvement in this state of things. Some better method for the primary care of persons mentally diseased is a need which is very generally felt both in this country and in the highly civilized countries of Europe.

Reception or psychopathic hospitals for mental diseases are now provided in every university in Germany and in several notable instances special wards have been built for this purpose in connection with general hospitals in this country, as at

Bellevue Hospital, New York City; Albany, New York; Philadelphia, and at the University hospital at Ann Arbor, Michigan, but this is only the beginning of a movement which must in some manner spread until the universal need is met.

A simple, and yet what would seem to be a very effective plan for solving this problem has occurred to me. Every state and territory in this Union has made some provision for caring for the insane. Suitable buildings are erected proportionate in number to the density of population and a certain district made contributory to each asylum. At these various ayslums or hospitals are gathered men well trained in all that pertains to the nature and treatment of mental disease of whatever form.

Within each district there exist in many places cities of considerable size and always county seats, centers of population, readily accessible by the inhabitants of that immediate neighborhood.

It is already the custom for the asylum or hospital for mental diseases to take care of the patients so afflicted within the limits of its district, but only when those patients are brought to it after due process of commitment, many times after prolonged delay and oftentimes too late to give the patient that benefit which earlier attention would have insured to him.

What is to hinder an extension of the beneficent work of this form of hospital by giving to each in some form a dispensary, a reception place, be it only a properly constructed room with attendant experienced in caring for the insane; a ward or a private room or two, with a specially trained nurse in charge, in connection with some general hospital already in existence in the cities or towns within the district.

Let these reception stations be selected and supervised by the superintendent of the district asylum or some member of the staff under him. The expense need not be great, but the system can be most efficiently created.

It is the custom now for all large hospitals for the insane to conduct training schools for nurses. Many of those who have had such training leave the service after a time and engage in some other occupation, settling in the towns and villages of the district in which the asylum is located. Certain of these

could be chosen — a married couple preferably — and they having taken a suitable house properly located could reserve one or more rooms for the reception and temporary care of persons deranged in that immediate neighborhood.

When such a patient is placed under the charge of one such representative or agent of the asylum the asylum superintendent could be at once notified and a member of the asylum staff could be delegated to visit the patient, examine him, make the diagnosis, outline the treatment suitable for the case and determine whether it is best for the patient to remain at this temporary retreat or be conveyed to the central asylum at once.

By this arrangement the asylum staff would be brought into closer touch with the patient's surroundings. They would meet more of the family and friends, their knowledge of the patient's home conditions and influences would be better understood and the educative influence on the people themselves would be salutary, for it would teach them, as no other method could so effectively, that insanity is a disease and is relieved and often cured by the helpful ministrations of a physician skilled in the art of dealing with mental disorders in their manifold forms.

The unity and economy of this plan would be quite as strong an argument in its favor as would be the assurance that it gives of prompt and appropriate attention to such cases from those physicians who have been clothed with the proper authority for caring for such cases and who are recognized specialists in this line.

XII.

The Treatment of Criminals.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON THE TREATMENT OF THE CRIMINAL.

BY S. J. BARROWS, SEC. PRISON ASSOCIATION OF NEW YORK.

Whatever difference may exist as to methods and systems, there is remarkable unanimity among modern penologists concerning the principles to be applied to the treatment of the criminal. Whether we look at it from the standpoint of the individual offender or of society as a whole, we reach essentially the same conclusion. A penal system to be effective must be corrective. It is a form of social suicide for any state to adopt a system which propagates crime instead of eradicating it. The protection of society is best secured not by extirpating the criminal, but by exterminating his criminality. It is a paradox for society to punish offenders when it continues to foster the conditions which produce them. Drastic and revengeful punishments have failed as deterrents. A corrective system must be essentially disciplinary and educational.

Let it be noted that the great majority of first offenders against the law are not criminals in purpose and a great number become habitual criminals only because society adopts methods of dealing with them which positively tend to make them such.

The rational treatment of the offender must begin as soon as he comes in the grasp of the law. The work of the probation officer and his investigations may even anticipate the trial. Jails should not be places of punishment for those awaiting trial; still less should they be places of contamination. The separation of youths from hardened offenders and the separation of the sexes should be rigidly enforced. The true function of the jail

is simply to be a house of detention; as now constructed and administered jails are absolutely unfit to be places of corrrection and are often a reproach to our civilization.

We make no comment in this report upon judicial procedure or administration during the trial of prisoners; but their disposition after trial reveals at once the imperfect traditions of our law and practice. The assumption that imprisonment is the only disposition to be made of the offender is arbitrary and irrational. It has already been demonstrated after several years of trial in various states and countries and as applied to every form of offence, except capital crime, that the suspension of the sentence and the release of prisoners on probation are vastly more corrective than imprisonment for first offenders, since statistics prove that a much smaller number of those placed on probation return to crime than of those committed to prison. The statistics of France and Belgium have demonstrated that of many thousand prisoners placed on probation but five per cent default and are re-arrested. Investigations made by the Prison Association of New York with reference to 169 cases, placed on probation in its charge during the last year, and all guilty of State Prison offences, show that ninety per cent are doing well. There is no prison system which can show equal results. We have here conclusive proof that for first offenders probation should be the first step in correction. Though a simple suspension of sentence is effective it is made more so by the appointment of probation officers, whose investigations furnish information to the judge and who exercise surveillance over the probationer committed to their custody. In cases where fines are imposed, the opportunity given to the probationer to earn and pay the amount of the fine is more rational than the familiar practice of committing him to a prison where he earns nothing and where he may even be a charge on the tax-payer.

When probation fails with the first offender, it is then necessary to restrict his liberty. But the assumption that a mere deprivation of liberty will of itself improve the character of the offender, is one of the great blunders of our penal system, and is responsible for the commitment of prisoners to jails where they lie in idleness for weeks and months in promiscuous and contam-

inating association. When an offender is removed from society, he should be submitted to conditions which are essentially disciplinary and corrective. No system is corrective which is not educational. It follows that correctional and reformatory institutions should be built with this distinct end in view. School rooms, shops, chapels, gardens, farms, are not luxuries but necessary instruments to the supreme end. Abundance of light, air, wholesome food, and exercise, of all of which the prisoner was deprived in mediaeval times, are absolute necessities under the new system.

Essential features of the reformatory system are an improved personnel in prison officers, an efficient corps of teachers, educative and productive industries, a graded and marking system, and elevating, refining and moral influences.

An indispensable element is the indeterminate sentence. The prisoner's release must not depend upon an arbitrary time sentence pronounced by the judge, but upon his individual efforts and attainment. He must "Work out his own salvation," partly "with fear and trembling," but also with hope and aspiration. It is only from the indefinite sentence that we can expect any definite results. The fixing of a definite term of imprisonment for every offence in the category of criminal codes is absolutely arbitrary and mechanical. Its application is marked by extreme injustice and is most impotent in results. On the one hand the short sentence is the bane of our judicial system, and is responsible for the production of the great number of repeaters. On the other hand, sentences are often excessively long without producing any beneficent result because they are not joined to any good system of instruction or administration. The indeterminate sentence is therefore a logical and necessary feature of a reformatory system. No judge save the Omniscient One can say in advance just how long a period of detention is necessary to cure a delinquent. The imposition of time penalties is a relic of the scheme of social vengeance. It should be replaced by a reformatory system in which the prisoner is not committed for a stated period, but remains under discipline until his record shows that it is safe to release him. Even then his release should be conditional until by good behavior at large he has earned his absolute

discharge. The parole system in many States and countries has sufficiently demonstrated its utility. To secure the best results it should be absolutely free from all partisan influences and determined by the character and conduct of the prisoner.

It is one advantage of the indeterminate sentence that if properly applied with conditional liberation it will eventually enable us to distinguish between the corrigible and the incorrigible offenders. For the first, it secures liberation as soon as he is fitted to receive it; for the second it provides the only remedy which is adequate for the protection of society, namely, the prolonged detention of the persistent offender.

There are many unsolved questions in the field of penology, but they relate mostly to methods and details. Among the great regenerative forces is that of intelligent and fruitful labor. Without exception, prison congresses, national and international, have emphasized the absolute necessity of labor for prisoners. There is much difference of opinion as to how it shall be applied and administered. It is a question largely influenced by considerations of climate and of available industries. Without attempting to decide in favor of special systems, it may be said that ideal conditions of prison labor are secured when the prisoner is employed in industries which are both educative and productive, in which discipline is not disturbed, in which by the labor of the prisoner the State is reimbursed for his support, and in which the prisoner himself secures a share of his earnings. Though competition cannot be wholly extinguished, that form of prison labor is to be preferred which is either so diversified, or else so concentrated by the appropriation of a single industry, as to produce the least disturbance in the market for free labor. The Scylla and Charybdis of two extremes should be avoided, that in which the State uses its criminals as a means of financial profit without reference to their reformation; and that in which the state condemns its prisoners to prolonged idleness, still less favorable for their redemption. In the selection of labor for prisoners, that form should be chosen which will do most to fit the prisoner for self-support when at liberty.

In this brief report we can enter into no details of prison administration or questions of physical environment; of dietaries,

discipline, and classification. All these matters are subordinate to the supreme question of the principle which should govern our penal system.

The care and discipline of criminals is not a matter of private charity; it is a function of the State. But in a country like our own, in which the State represents the will of the people, it must also represent their conscience, their intelligence and their heart. Behind the machinery of the administration must be the motive power of a great public sentiment summoning its officers to do justice and to love mercy. For the state to take offenders who are capable of redemption and commit them to conditions which turn them into hopeless criminals, is for the state to become a partner in the promotion of crime. To corrigible offenders, society owes, for its own sake and for theirs, the application of every influence, physical, intellectual, moral and religious, which can bring about reformation. The multiplied agencies of education, the incentive to hope, endeavor, ambition, and ultimate reward should be brought to bear upon the delinquent, involving the entire reorganization of his life, the training of his hand, the development of his will, the quickening of his intellect, the awakening of his conscience, the unfolding of his religious nature; in short, his correction and redemption. For this task great forces, divine and human, are placed at the disposal of the state, and the state which neglects to invoke and apply them imperils its own social health and development.

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SHIRLEY BRAGG,
C. H. BUNDY,
JOSEPH P. BYERS,
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CHARLES HUTZLER,
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J. L. MILLIGAN,
WARREN F. SPALDING,
HANNAH G. SOLOMON,
J. L. TAIT,
JULIA A. TUTWILER.

COLORED CRIMINALS.

BY REV. FRED H. WINES, LL. D.

Though not myself a southerner, I have seen much of southern prison life, having visited most of the state prisons in the South; and at one time it was my privilege to accompany the state officers of Tennessee, who were also the state prison inspectors, on a tour of investigation made by them to determine the truth or falsity of charges brought against the lessees, of inhuman treatment of convicts. I saw all that they saw, and heard all that they heard. I therefore know a little about convict camps.

Mr. Richard Vaux, of Philadelphia, president of the board of inspectors of the Eastern Penitentiary of Pennsylvania, was my father's friend, and my friend. My father regarded him as, of all men in this country, the most learned expert in prison discipline and reform. Yet Mr. Vaux once said to me that, definite as were his notions of the proper treatment of white prisoners, the negro convict was to him an insoluble problem. I can see the force of that remark.

There are four principal difficulties in the way of what we call the "reformation" of colored criminals.

The first is in the mental constitution of the convict himself. I know the pride of the Negro. He is, in his way as proud as the white man. But he lacks the sense of shame. A sentence to imprisonment produces in his mind no adequate sense of disgrace. Very likely his pastor comes to him, pats him on the back, and says to him: "Never mind, John! It is only for two years, you will learn a trade within the walls, and when you come back, we will all think as much of you as ever." Shame, which is so large an element in punishment for the whites, does not enter into the punishment inflicted by law upon the great majority of the blacks.

The three agencies relied upon for the reformation of prisoners are education, religion and labor. You cannot apply them to the Negro in the same sense as to the white man. This is the great obstacle to the normal development of the penal system of the South. It is complicated with this everlasting negro quest-

ion. Methods in common use at the north, which we have tested and approved, and which we would naturally recommend for your adoption, are methods which you might be inclined to apply to white prisoners, but which for various reasons, you are not willing to employ in dealing with colored convicts.

Take education, to begin with. The education given in prisons, such as it is, is either literary or industrial, or both. You do not want to give the Negro in prison a better literary education than it is possible to furnish to the average child, white or black, because that seems to be in the nature of a premium on crime, and to encourage crime, rather than to discourage it. That is a practical difficulty, and it debars you from making use of one of the most powerful of all available agencies for the reformation and rehabilitation of criminals. The case with industrial training in prison is somewhat analogous.

Or take religion. Now the Negro, with his imagination and his emotional nature, is the most religious of animals. And there is perhaps no place in the world, where there can be found so much religion to the square inch, as in some of the convict camps. Many of the convicts are exhorters, and there may be, in a state camp, half a dozen preaching services, on Sundays, at the same hour, conducted by negro prisoners. The tendency to divorce religion from morals, which we discover in ourselves, is very strong in the Negro, in proportion to his ignorance and want of intellectual culture.

Thus we come to the third and greatest of all reformatory agencies — labor, or work. What is the trouble with that? At the north, none; except the opposition of the labor unions. You have not the labor union to contend with; but you have racial and local difficulties of your own, even harder to evade or overcome. The prison physicians of the south are intelligent men. They are generally agreed that life within prison walls is unfavorable to the life of the Negro, who does not thrive in a state of close confinement. It is also a prevalent belief at the south, that the Negro is not well adapted for such employment as is furnished in factories. Whether that is true, I do not know. Possibly — probably — it is so.

I am sure that the factory system is destined to prove itself

a great blessing to landless southern whites. It was a great pleasure to me to hear Mrs. Black express herself as she did about "the poor whites." I lived among them, in the southwest, for a year, before the war; and despite their poverty and ignorance, I learned to respect and love them. I agree with Mrs. Black that they do not merit the opprobrium heaped upon their heads by their prejudiced detractors. The factory system offers to them the hope of salvation. It has everywhere been a factor in the advance of civilization. What it has done at the north it will do at the south also: take women and children out of unsanitary homes and surround them with good sanitary conditions, put them under discipline, assure to them a modest income, and, by training their hands, stimulate and unfold their mental powers. If it could be applied to the Negro, it would lift him to a higher level of manhood.

If it can not, then the only alternative is his employment outside of prison walls. The three forms of labor practicable, at the south, for negro convicts, are farming, mining and the construction of railroads.

From the point of view of administration, mining has one great recommendation. Prisoners at work under ground are securely held, at comparatively slight cost. One man, at the mine opening, with a loaded rifle, can prevent the escape of a single prisoner, no matter how great their number; especially when they are at the bottom of a shaft, and must be brought to the surface, a few at a time in a cage. On the other hand, in the chambers where they work in the dark, by the light of a candle, they are not subject to observation, and a mine full of negro convicts is a hot-bed of vice.

If the state owned its own railroads, I imagine that railroad construction would be one of the best possible employments for them. The objection to it is that they are not, under corporate ownership, in the hands of state officials, but of lessees.

The state farm is, in my judgment, the place for negro convicts, under existing conditions. With good soil and good management, they there have a chance of which under any other system they are deprived. But do not lease them out. Keep them strictly under the control of responsible state officials, who

are themselves subject to inspection and liable to removal for cause. I am acquainted with a prison director at the north, an excellent man, a good neighbor and citizen, honest and capable in the management of his business, of whom a shrewd observer said that his idea of prison discipline was to find the economic point at which to kill the convict, as though the prisoner were a mule. That is too often, I fear, the point of view of the prison contractor at the north, and of the prison lessee at the south; but, of these two, the lessee has the better opportunity, if so disposed, to starve and otherwise maltreat his men.

The state of Georgia is in a position to lead, in the work of prison reform, in a direction in which no other state can. The sore spot in our American prison system is the county jail. We can not get rid of it, because of the vast amount of capital invested, and the vested rights of the counties in these institutions. You have never put any money into them. Why should you? The laws that have been violated by the inmates of our county jails are state laws. The prisoners confined in them are prisoners of the state, not of the counties. They should be cared for by the state, and not by county officials. There is no good reason for entrusting them to county officials, any more than to lessees. The excuse for the existence of the county jail system is that it originated when population was sparse, and there were no railways or telegraphs. In this age it is an anachronism. Not having it, you need never establish it. I am told that in Georgia there are comparatively few abuses in the state camps; they are in the county camps, over which the state has insufficient control. It seems to me that Georgia might take all her convicts, misdemeanants as well as felons, out of the control of the counties, and assume direct charge of them. State officials have no pecuniary interest in ascertaining the economic point at which to kill them, and the sentiment of natural humanity would compel the administration of punishment in the interest of the prisoner as well as in that of the preservation of law and order. If you could realize the importance of this reform and the magnificent opportunity which belongs to you exclusively, surely you would embrace it, and "make a record" by instituting a radical change in your prison system along the line which I have thus pointed out.

THE REFORMATION OF THE CRIMINAL.

BY GEN. C. A. EVANS, ATLANTA, GEORGIA.

I have great pleasure in standing before these delegates representing as I know they do the head and heart combined of our common country. In expressing my own gratification in being present, I am permitted to add still further, as has frequently done by those who have spoken to you, the great gratification felt by our people in having your presence here to discuss these questions which rise far above all local considerations; and surely we may be permitted to discuss all the points presented in your program in view of our national life, our state life, and our social life. We may discuss these questions on the basis of principle and then reach conclusions practical in their nature. I do not think I need to tell you that there is no necessity whatever of taking any sort of sectional view of any of these matters which we are discussing. In fact this one great matter that is now before us is of such common human interest that it knows no north, no south, no east, no west; it belongs to our common humanity. In considering such matters as these, I feel that I must disembarrass myself of any consideration that I have a peculiar interest in them merely because I am the son and grandson and great-grandson from the very start from English sources of immigrants to this land. When I spread upon my desk the map that is always ready there for me to examine containing the boundaries of my country, I am always impressed by the view that the terms "north" and "south" are political mistakes and have no part nor lot in a general consideration of the interests of our whole country. Being an engineer myself I know that there is no skilled body of engineers in the world that can distinctly define the line that is supposed by some imaginary people to exist, called the dividing line between the north and the south of this country. King James in dividing up this land, unfortunately called the colony above the Chesapeake the north colony and adopted that word in his grant; and then the other colony just for convenience sake he called "the south

colony." Thus those two words which were adopted merely for colonial settlement reasons fixed themselves somehow in public language, and we use them until this day. But looking at this solid land of ours with its common interest and with the same grand traditions and the same grand hopes, I realize that this is one undivided country, and it has a common interest in all that relates to the uplifting of our common land. I, as a Southern born man, express these sentiments to you who come from all the states of the south and the states of the north and east and west, I express these sentiments to you as I do to my own people who know that I was a Confederate soldier and that my career was with those men known and loved everywhere, Stonewall Jackson and Robert Lee. (Applause.) I wish to talk to-day rather than to make a formal address on this matter of criminal reformation. First of all, I would say that one great principle in this business as in all business is expressed by the one word co-operation.

First, the co-operation of the criminal man with all the agencies that can be set at work to restore him to citizenship and make him worhy of freedom. We must remember that the man who is a convict is individually and personally responsible for being such. He should be made to feel that the way of the transgressor is hard; the law must impress upon him the great truth that by his transgression he has found a hard way: isolation, labor, disgrace, and if he has sensibilities the thought of the father and mother that are suffering on his account, the wife and children that are thrown out of society because he has failed in his duty to them and to society. All this as a result of transgression needs to be stamped upon the comprehension of every criminal. Society, the state, the church, should impress upon all people the truth that "murder will out," that transgression will be discovered. Let the criminal be informed as to the real nature of his offense and if there should be in him the slightest indication of sorrow that indication should grow in strength until it dominates in him and creates a desire to turn from the evil ways.

Then passing to the next point in this matter of co-operation, we have a right to appeal to government. It is an institution created for the purpose of protecting the rights of the individual and also of conserving the interests of society, so that government existing by the consent of the governed must discharge its duty to all the individuals of the whole country, by insuring domestic tranquility, establishing justice, and promoting everything that is good. Within these constitutional limits it should do whatever it can for the saving of the criminal, and the deterrence of crime. When we remember that we have more criminals at work to-day while I am talking to you, than we have armies and navies, than we have employes on all public works,—a vast host scattered from one confine of our country to the other at an enormous expense to society, individuals, and government, we are impelled to consider what shall be done to prevent such a collection of criminals at such a tremendous expense. The reformation of the criminal under civil authority ought to begin with his arrest. As soon as he is in the hands of the sheriff he is in the hands of the government and it may be that much of his nature may depend upon who this sheriff is, what he says, and how he treats him.

The next step is the responsibility that must be borne by the man who keeps the jail. For the reformation of the criminal he is responsible to an extent that he rarely considers, I fear. He regards his duty to be simply that of safe keeping. But the jailor who thoroughly understands the trust that is imposed upon him ought to ask himself this question: What can I do to make this man a good citizen? If all the jailors and sheriffs in our country would take that view of the matter, they would meet the criminal at the outset in a way to each hi mhe rudiments of the doctrine of liberty. While the trial progresses and the prisoner is represented by counsel and by the presence of the court and by all the incidents of trial, every man that sits upon the jury and the counsel who discusses the issue and the judge himself upon the bench ought to have in view the *reformation* of that particular criminal. That would by no means prevent his proper confession and proper punishment. Prison discipline must have for its main object the bringing of the man up out of his degra-

dation and crime until he shall be fit to go into society and become a good citizen of the country. Every temptation has its purpose, every trial and sorrow a divine aim, for I cannot conceive that the Almighty punishes any man capriciously or puts him to any trial needlessly; but that He intends to make all things work together so that the man will be induced to forsake evil ways and become a useful citizen of the kingdom of heaven here established. That is the principle to be applied in prison discipline, and practically it can be applied without our being accused of mawkish sentimentality. A true and just regard for law, for the justice by which he was condemned, a recognition of the righteousness of the sentence imposed upon him and that he shall be separated from society and made to work until the sentence has expired, all that is in perfect agreement with a proper extension of mercy. Righteousness, peace, and mercy, and justice should go hand in hand in the matter of bringing the prisoner up to the state of a free citizen.

The great helper of the government is the people who make it. Society for its own sage ought to take steps to reduce the amount of criminal action, beginning with the child and rearing a generation under social influences that are less disposed to commit crime than our present generation seems to be. On the other hand, all those who have the duty of enforcing the law ought to be made to feel from all directions that society is ready to co-operate with them, in doing whatever can be done to save the criminal. When the sentence has expired, government takes off the prison habit and puts on the man a suit of citizen's clothes and puts money enough in his hands to take him back to his home. It has no representative, who is bound to meet him as he comes out of the prison door. But government expects the people to exercise that power which they have not committed to the government. And therein lies our duty: to meet the prisoner at the door, to furnish him opportunities for employment so that he will not turn again to his evil life. But society is an intangible, incorporeal thing; you cannot grasp it and it is harnessed to nothing unless you have institutions by which society can express itself, organizations through which it may act. Taking the government together and society we must conclude

that the government is right in establishing reformatories, that the government is doing its duty when it builds institutions to take care of the criminal class, either to reform them or to prevent them from needing reformation, and that there is no expenditure which the government can make that will greater conserve the general welfare than that of preventing crime or curing the prisoner of his criminal proclivities.

Let me further say that the State and all of tis political divisions should have the reasonable co-operation of the philanthropist on whom God has laid the burden of great wealth. I am encouraged by the fact that there are so many hundreds and thousands of wealthy men in our wealthy country who have accumulated vast sums by the blessing of the Almighty God and are already distributing here and there portions of their means in charities of various sorts. And I do not know to what point a million of dollars might be better be given by this man and by that than in building institutions in which the criminal might be reformed or in which the individual might be prevented from becoming a criminal.

In this general talk I have set forth the idea that without co-operation the convict cannot be reformed. We must meet him as a man, stir up his humanity if he has any, get at his conscience and endeavor to get his co-operation with all the agencies which are seeking his practical reformation. I do not have very great hope in the reformation of the criminals of our country under present conditions; but if one-fifth of them can be turned loose to become good citizens we certainly shall accomplish a great work if we save that one-fifth; and if in the meantime the children of this country can be saved from the indulgence of criminal proclivities so that the criminal habit may not be confirmed in them, we may when this century closes reduce by fifty per cent. the criminal population of our great and glorious country.

XIII.

Minutes and Discussions.

SECRETARY'S REPORT.

Wednesday, May 6, 1903.

The thirtieth meeting of the National Conference of Charities and Correction was held in Atlanta, Georgia, in 1903. The first session was called to order in the First Baptist Church on Wednesday night, May 6, at 8 P. M., by Dr. T. D. Longino, chairman of the Local Committee. Music was furnished by the choir of the First Baptist Church. Prayer was offered by Rev. W. W. Landrum, D. D. An address of welcome was given on behalf of the state by Hon. Joseph Turner, chairman of the Georgia Prison Commission. An address of welcome on behalf of the city of Atlanta was given by the Hon. E. P. Howell. Rev. Fred H. Wines, LL. D., responded. These addresses follow. The President's address, by Robert W. DeForest, Esq., closed the exercises of the evening. [Page 1.]

WELCOME OF HON. JOSEPH TURNER, ATLANTA.

Mr. President, Ladies and Gentlmen: — While the absence of Governor Terrell, who had been selected to welcome you, upon this occasion, must be a distinct disappointment to you, known as he is for his gifted eloquence and charming personality, yet I trust that, on this account, our reception of you may seem none the less warm and our hospitality no less gracious and cordial.

No convention, so notable as this, has ever before assembled in Georgia, composed as it is of earnest men and women, from every section of this continent, who, for the time, have laid aside every selfish interest, and buried egotism in altruism divinely inspired; actuated by a common purpose, to which they are contributing their experience and talents, the upbuilding and protection of society, the correct solution of these difficult problems

of sociology, whereby vice and crime, ignorance and poverty may be materially lessened, if not completely eradicated.

A conference so composed, pledged to the accomplishment of an object so noble, not only commands the respect of all, but demands the hearty co-operation of every man and woman who is interested in the solution of questions so vital to the advancement of morality and humanity.

Every community, however cultured, is confronted with such problems, more or less differing in degree only according to environment, but no less dangerous, no less certain to diffuse their subtle poison throughout the arteries of society, and no less deadly in their effect upon the moral life of the community. Fortunately there have arisen in every such community brave men and women, who, with unselfish courage, have administered the antidotes, broad statesmanship, liberal charity, and moral education which, to a great extent have controlled the infection and checked its deadly ravages. Of such, I am sure, this convention is composed, and to you as such, individually and collectively, I extend Georgia's most sincere welcome and most cordial hospitality, believing that, in the interchange of views, in the discussion of those topics which will come before you, the delegates from this state will learn many useful lessons from your riper experiences.

Georgia, of course, has had and still has such conditions with which to contend which will probably, during this conference at the proper time, be discussed by delegates who have brought to their investigation patient, thorough and intelligent research. Fortunately, however, for us, from a moral if not a material standpoint, such conditions as grow out of involuntary poverty, and a want of remunerative employment, have not menaced society here as seriously as they have in some other states; for Georgia has been, and still is, largely an agricultural state, with no great cities teeming with crowded population each member of which is sharply competing with the others for place and sustenance, in which strenuous competition too often the weaker fall, and clamoring for bread are trodden under the feet of the stronger; in which human parasites prey upon the life and morals of the community, and breed and foster vice in its most hideous forms. Here the sparsely settled population, though laboriously tilling the soil for daily bread, are close to nature's heart, from whose healthful pulsations they learn noble lessons of industry, patience and frugality. Under such conditions their children are born, and reared in the freedom of God's sunshine, mature into sturdy men and women, unpolluted by daily contact with flaunting vice, untempted by depraved com-

panions, walking upright in the image of their Maker, lifting their heads heavenward, even as the strong young oak, in its vigorous growth, strives to kiss the blue vault of heaven with its topmost boughs. Such environments beget health, morality, energy and self-reliance, and when the youth grown under such conditions, ventures from his country home to engage in other pursuits, he carries a constitution inured to hard labor strengthened by the natural conditions under which is matured a moral nature uncontaminated and strong in its healthful innocence, and, therefore, the better able to resist not only the insidious attacks of disease, but the more insidious attacks of immorality and vice which assail him in his new surroundings. No wonder that men and women reared under such conditions outstrip their less favored competitors, and are the most successful business factors in the towns and cities. Here, too, the demand for labor, both skilled and unskilled, far exceeds the supply, and no one who honestly desires to maintain himself and his family need suffer for the necessities and even the comforts of life. For the want of labor thousands of acres of land lie uncultivated in the south whose generous soil promises frugal returns to those who till them. The forests, the mines, the mills, are all alike hampered in their output for the want of such labor.

Despite such favorable conditions, however, vice and poverty, ignorance and crime do exist, and with the rapid increase of our population, the magnificent growth of our cities, the splendid development of our natural resources demanding the erection of great industrial establishments, and concentrating the population under more unnatural conditions, they and their concomitant evils will increase, unless the antidotes are vigorously and properly administered.

Georgia has never been unmindful of these conditions, or asleep to the great dangers which menace society from these sources. Her first private charity, the Bethesda Orphanage, at Savannah, established more than a century and a half ago by the celebrated George Whitfield, is but one of the many other similar institutions fostered and supported by private contributions which have made good citizens of hundreds of human waifs who otherwise might have become paupers and criminals. Her public charities are no less conspicuous; her sanitarium for the care and treatment of the insane; her school for the deaf and dumb; her Academy for the Blind were all founded in her early history, and are bountifully maintained after most improved modern methods, according to their growing necessities; her dependent poor, according to general statutes wisely framed, are cared for by each county in an intelligent and humane manner; certain

classes of her confederate veterans, who have become unable to care for themselves, are maintained and tenderly nurtured in her Soldiers' Home, a well appointed and comfortable institution, the credit of which belongs to that golden-hearted man, the lamented Grady. Many hundreds of others, and the widows of certain classes draw annually from the treasury bountiful pensions amounting in the aggregate to as much as all the other southern states together devote to this noble charity.

In educational matters, her policy has been wise, and her appropriations as liberal as her condition justified. Her public schools, established in every community, bring to every child of every race and condition in life the advantages of free tuition in the elementary branches of an English education, while their higher training is supplied, at a small cost, including normal and technical education, by the state university, and its appropriate branches. The percentage of illiteracy, true, still remains high, but when it is remembered that less than forty years ago the negro race, constituting practically one-half of her population, was wholly illiterate, and that to-day the number of illiterates amounts to only 30.5 per cent., it must be conceded that, in this respect, we have, at least, made substantial progress.

Her penal institutions, while still far from perfect, as all such institutions are, have, within the past few years, been greatly improved, and, so far as those are concerned, in which the felony convicts are confined, over which the state itself exercises control, from both a humane and economic standpoint, will compare favorably with the best modern systems. The lease system, in every respect obnoxious, has been completely abandoned as to this class of convicts and exists, as to certain misdemeanants, over which county authorities exercise control, solely by reason of a previous misconstruction of the law which was designed to prevent the evil.

There is one social problem to which I have not alluded, which, for thirty-five years, has demanded the attention of the southern people, and provokes more discussion at present in every section of our common country than all others. The negro problem with us controls every condition covered by that comprehensive title, 'Charities and Correction,' because it is among this race that are to be found, to the largest extent, that ignorance, vice, poverty and crime, the correction of which is the fundamental object of this conference. This fact is terribly emphasized when I state that, although they comprise but 50 per cent. in this state, of the whole population, 92 per cent. of all the criminals of Georgia are Negroes. When attention is directed to another fact, for which I vouch, that on account of the leniency shown and the

sympathy felt for them, where they are best known and understood, many hundreds of crimes known to be committed by them are never prosecuted and punished, the conclusion is appalling.

The solution of this question in the south is the "white man's burden,' and so vitally does it affect his every interest that his best time and talents are being devoted to its settlement, honestly, fairly and prayerfully, and, if to them it shall be left, with the charitable sympathy of all good men and women, and without the well meaning, but misguided interference of those who are ignorant of the truth concerning it, it will be properly settled, and in perfect justice to the best interests of both races.

In thus referring to our troubles, and our efforts to overcome them, were I bidding you welcome, in the capacity of an ordinary host, I should be properly considered and condemned as having violated good taste and propriety, but as the purpose of this convention is the discussion of these and similar questions for our common benefit, I do not consider it improper that I should have alluded to them in welcoming you.

Once again, I bid you welcome. The state of Georgia is not only pleased to have you, but feels honored in your coming.

ADDRESS OF WELCOME OF MAYOR E. P. HOWELL.

Ladies and Gentlemen :— I am gratified to meet such a concourse of people, who come here in the cause of humanity. I wish to extend to you the best welcome that Atlanta can give. When Dr. Longino telegraphed to us from Detroit a year ago that he had secured the attendance of this grand convention at Atlanta this year, we were all very grateful. We have been thanking him ever since, and we are now going to extend to you the heartiest welcome that you have received in any city in the United States. We have not only organized the gentlemen, but we have organized the ladies. We have selected one of the nicest ladies in our city, belonging to the best families, who is an earnest worker in everything that pertains to humanity, and placed her at the head, and she has gathered around her a noble band of women, who are going to give you the cordial welcome you are entitled to, and that means a great deal.

If this convention had assembled here in 1865, we would all have been on the charity list, every one of us, the best families and the middle classes and all. Some of us had to sleep on the floor six months before we could get money to buy a bedstead. There were only three churches here left standing, because they were used as hospitals by the Federals and Confederates. We did not have a single institution here in 1865. We only had a hundred shanties left, after Howard and Sherman got through with

the town. But we came back and went to work and built up a city of which we are proud. We are gratified to have you here, to show you what we have done.

We are not whining about what resulted. Those of us who went into the Confederate Army expected to stay until the last ditch, and we came out with mighty little. I was grateful for two things when I got back here. One was that I was not killed, and the other was that the war ended in the spring instead of the fall I do not know what we could have done if we had had to start out in the fall of the year. There is less animosity in Atlanta than in any city I ever saw that got the treatment it got during the war. But we went to work immediately. Men that before the war were worth thousands of dollars went to work with their own hands to build up this town. All these churches that you see in Atlanta have been built since the war. This church in which we are is a new one, but they have outgrown it and have sold it, and are going to build a bigger one. In all this we have had the assistance of the ladies. We could not have accomplished what we did without them. Those of you who come from the north know that the most cantankerous rebels that we ever had were women. I surrendered because I had to; but *they* didn't surrender until two or three years after the war. But they have been a great moving spirit here, God bless them. No class of men have done more to help us than the ladies of this city. They have been foremost in building churches, in building all of our institutions for humanity's sake.

We have in this city institutions and organizations to help humanity from the cradle to the grave. To-morrow, we lay the corner-stone of a maternity ward, and every dollar of that money has been raised by the ladies of the city of Atlanta. Then thousands of dollars have been raised to take care of the poor who are not able to take care of themselves. We have the Sheltering Arms, Home for the Friendless, the Florence Crittenden Home, and last but not least, a Home for the Incurables. This, I think, is the grandest charity I know of. After a man can no longer get help from anybody else, they take him here, and take care of him until he dies.

I hear frequent discussions between the pessimists and optimists as to whether the world is getting any better, but when I see men and women gathered here from all parts of this country, working for the cause of humanity without any reward, no man need talk to me about the world not being better. To-day, if a man falls among thieves, there is not a neighborhood in any community in the nation whose citizens pass by on the other side. They would go to him and minister to his wants. This

world is getting better, and I welcome you to this city as representatives of that spirit of charity which is doing everything it can for suffering humanity. It does not matter how bad they are; it does not matter if they are criminals. They are to be taken care of, and that is the sign that this world is progressing along lines of the great millenium, which is coming by the righteousness of men, by the forebearance of men, by studying at all times what can be done to elevate the unfortunate in this world.

I want to say a word in regard to our lamented late President, President McKinley. For the kind words that he spoke in this city, and his kind acts and his spirit toward our Confederate dead, he is as popular to-day in Atlanta as he was in Canton, Ohio. He has as many friends here as any President that ever occupied the presidential chair, because he was a peace-maker. You know they crowded us after the war, and the more you crowd a man, the more he will kick. A mule will do that, and there isn't much difference in human nature between a man and a mule. You treat a mule right, and he will treat you right, except you must not fool with his hind legs. But President McKinley when he took Wheeler and Lee and others, and gave them commissions in the army, and when he came down here and said "I want you to go and help fight the battles of the Spanish War" won our respect and regard. I have been all through the United States since the war, and I never met a man in all my travels who fought in the Union Army who did not treat me just as well as the Confederates did, for they knew very well that we did the best we could. God in his providence settled this question. We accepted the result, and we have gone to work and done the best we could.

Again, friends, I welcome you most heartily to the City of Atlanta.

RESPONSE TO ADDRESS OF WELCOME.

BY F. H. WINES, LL. D.

On behalf of the members of the Conference, I desire to express our grateful appreciation of the magnificent hospitality shown us as your guests. Why I have been selected to make this response I do not know, unless it is because I am not only one of the oldest members of the Conference, but I lived in the south before the war, married in the south, and am supposed to understand southern sentiment somewhat better than others who have not had the same opportunity to familiarize themselves with the southern conditions.

We were all glad to hear the mayor express himself so freely about the Civil War, its consequences, and the process of gradual

recovery from the sufferings incident to that terrible experience. May I say a little on the same subject, from the other side?

I do not think that, either at the north or at the south, the real significance of that memorable conflict is even yet quite understood. That brave and gallant soldier, that unquestioned patriot, that distinguished citizen and statesman, Gen. John B. Gordon, of your own city and state, in the first number of his reminiscences of the war, just printed in a popular magazine, has made the clearest statement of the causes which led up to the war, that I have seen from any pen. Two of his statements specially impressed me, namely, first, that slavery, although it acted to inflame the passions of men on both sides, was not the real cause of the struggle. The war would have ended, without the emancipation of the negro, at any moment when the authority of the federal government would have been recognized by the states forming the southern Confederacy. Second, that the existence of slavery at the south, and not at the north, was due to climatic and industrial conditions.

The industrial revolution has indeed created both a new north and a new south. The new north extends greeting to the new south. All political issues are at bottom phases of the labor question. The question of African slavery was a question of the form of labor and of its remuneration. The Civil War was a struggle between the agricultural interests of one section and the manufacturing interests of the other. In its deeper aspects it was more than that. It was a world issue, a struggle between two competing ideals of civilization — landed aristocracy and industrial democracy. These two are in an attitude of mutual opposition wherever civilization is found, utterly irrespective of the presence or absence of slavery as a local institution. Slavery, therefore, was, as Gen. Gordon declares it to have been, a subordinate and minor incident in the issue submitted by the people of the United States, to the final arbitrament of the sword.

As I have intimated, my residence at the south prior to the war enabled me to perceive and recognize the patriarchal character of the system of labor which has since been swept away by the rising and irresistible tide of our modern industrial civilization. The southern slave holder, his wife, his children and his servants constituted one family, a patriarchal family, to which it was the pride of the servants to belong. If any woman in the world merits the respect and admiration of mankind, the mistress of a great plantation had the right to claim and to receive it. No woman on earth carried a heavier burden. No woman ever met her responsibilities with greater fortitude, with a more genuine sense of moral obligation, or made greater sacrifices, in a spirit

of sweeter Christian love, than she. Under that system, there was no pauperism, in the technical sense of that word, and very little crime. The Negro belonged to his master, and was cared for by him in sickness and in old age. Such petty offences as were committed by him were dealt with by the master on the plantation. The south had no prison system worthy of the name; it needed none.

Then came emancipation and the surrender. The Negro became *ipso facto* a pauper, his former relation to the soil and to the white people having been destroyed; and it thenceforth became necessary to treat such Negroes as were guilty of violation of law and order as criminals. The only state governments were military governments. The states were bankrupt. The people of the south were impoverished, their homes burned or in a state of dilapidation. The Negroes had neither land, money nor remunerative employment. They had nothing, and their former masters had nothing. The south had to be recreated, a miracle almost as great as the creation of a new world. What was to be done with the Negro criminal? There were no prisons in which to incarcerate him, and no funds with which to build them. The only alternative was the institution of the lease system, for which the military governments must bear the immediate and direct responsibility. The first lease, so far as the record shows, was signed by Gen. Hancock, in Louisiana.

All of these changes and events constitute a phase of the industrial revolution, brought about by the discovery of steam as a mechanical force, and the invention and general use of labor-saving machinery, which led to the establishment of the factory system and the aggregation of capital in the hands of corporations for the accomplishment of gigantic undertakings. So long as the patriarchal system existed at the south, it was confined to the northern states; but with the close of the war it gained a foothold at the south. This is why the problems of poverty and crime, that have engaged our attention for so many years, have at last forced themselves upon the conscience and intellect of the south. This is why the National Conference of Charities and Correction meets this year in the heart of the south. You desire to profit by our experience, and we desire to give you the benefit of it. You have the opportunity to avoid the mistakes which we have made. The questions which are new to you are not new to us. We realize that if you will now devote yourselves, heart and soul and mind and strength, to their solution, while the evils incident to the situation are still in their infancy and can be easily dealt with, you are in a position to meet them more effectively than we have been able to do.

Wonderful changes have occurred in this section of our common country. Whereas, twenty years ago, the south produced but six per cent of the manufactured products of the United States, it now produces nine per cent. The manufactured products of the south aggregate very nearly as much as in the New England states. Your negro problem, which you regard as such a menace, is no more difficult than that of foreign immigration is for us. But we are not here to discuss your local questions. We are here to discuss the general principles which underlie all charitable and correctional work, without regard to race, color, or previous condition of servitude, leaving you to make the particular application of them to individuals and classes, in conformity to your more intimate knowledge of the local situation and your better judgment of their respective claims. We hope that our southern friends will actively participate in all of our discussions, and if we can be of any service to you in this emergency, we shall still feel that we have made a most inadequate return for the cordial and splendid reception you have given us to-night.

SECOND SESSION.

Thursday, May 7, 1903.

The Conference was called to order by the President, Robert W. DeForest, Esq. Prayer was offered by Rt. Rev. B. J. Keiley, D. D., Bishop of Savannah.

The following committee on resolutions was appointed by the Chair: Messrs. Philip C. Garret, H. H. Hart, and Timothy Nicholson, all ex-presidents of the Conference.

The President introduced Mr. John H. Garber of the United States Census Bureau who spoke in substance as follows:

Mr. Garber.— I have never had the pleasure of attending a meeting of this Conference before, but I have recently devoted myself to an industrious study of its history and I am impressed with the value of its contributions to the humanity of prison life and to the amelioration of the conditions of the unfortunate and the despised. Evolution, according to our latest interpreters has taught us one lesson greater than all the rest, and one which, it seems to me, this Conference has well learned and by which it is guided; it is the lesson that humanity is not to reach its full stature through natural selection and the survival of the fittest alone, but through those agencies aided by the charitable

and philanthropic heart of organized society engaged in making the greatest possible number strong and fit to survive. The Census Office will feel that it is doing a great service for the Conference if, by a careful compilation of statistics of criminal and of pauper classes, it presents facts that will guide us in our course. I remember reading recently a book written by Dr. Henderson in which he said that we do not know whether pauperism is increasing or decreasing. It is held by many that crime is on the increase. It is of the greatest importance that we should be able to determine whether these contentions be true — whether crime and pauperism are increasing or decreasing, and to what extent. Such information it seems to me is absolutely necessary to test, from a sociological standpoint, the efficacy of our charitable methods and the wisdom of their application. The Census Office inquiry is limited by the Act of Congress to the population of institutions. We cannot, as we interpret the Act, collect statistics of out-door relief, public or private, but what we want to do now is to get a complete and accurate list of the charitable and benevolent institutions of the United States, which will serve as the basis of the present inquiry and being revised from time to time will serve as the basis of future inquiries of broader scope. We have recently written to every charity organization society in the United States asking for copies of their latest published reports, together with a list of the charitable institutions in their respective cities. Thus far, replies from about half of them have been received. If, after returning to your homes, you receive correspondence from the Census Office concerning the subjects we here discuss, I ask that you give it your careful attention. We need your helpful co-operation to make the statistics of Crime, Pauperism and Benevolence in the United States valuable to you and to all those interested in their interpretation.

Dr. F. H. Wines.— Our venerable friend Mr. Andrew E. Elmore, in a sense the father of this Conference, is now nearly ninety years old and is confined to his house. I think it would give him a great deal of pleasure to send him a telegram expressing our regret at his inability to be with us and our best wishes for his health and happiness during his declining years. I move that the Secretary be empowered to send such a telegram.

Voted.

The subject for the morning session was the report of the Committee on County and Municipal Institutions, Out-door Relief and Vagrancy. In the absence of the chairman, Mr. C. L.

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Stonaker of Colorado, Mr. W. H. Allen, General Agent of the A. I. C. P. of the same committee was made acting chairman and presided during the remainder of the session. Mr. Allen said the report of the committee would be read in the afternoon. (page 374).

He himself read a paper upon "The Vagrant; Social Parasite or Social Product." (page 379).

A paper on the "Elimination of Individual Vagrants" was read by Mr. James Forbes, Mendicancy Officer of the Charity Organization Society of New York City. (page 416).

A paper on the "Rural Tramp" was read by Mr. James F. Jackson, Secretary Associated Charities, Minneapolis. (page 401).

An address on "Reinstatement of Vagrants Through Municipal Lodging Houses" was given by Miss Alice C. Willard. (page 404).

The ex-mayor of Atlanta, Mr. Livingston Mims, was invited to open the discussion.

DISCUSSION ON VAGRANTS.

Mr. Livingston Mims.— I have heard more of tramps and of the ways of dealing with them in these two days than I have ever heard before, but I can not speak as an expert myself. I want to avail myself of this opportunity to felicitate the city on the advantage to Atlanta to have this conference here and I claim some of the glory, as the first steps toward securing your visit here were taken during my term as mayor. I envy the present mayor the opportunity of welcoming you, but am happy that I had some small part in our assembling here.

Mr. E. T. Devine, C. O. S., New York.— There is no subject coming before this Conference of more importance, and no phase of it more interesting and more profitable for us to discuss than the one raised by the chairman, whether it is best to direct our energies to the education of the men making vagrants or to the reclamation of the vagrant. Both of these processes should continue side by side, but there may be a little danger that we may go too far and assume that there is less neeessity than we have supposed for dealing with the subject along repressive lines. I do not under-estimate the importance of working along the other line, of pushing the education of the man who is responsible for the existence of the vagrant, but I do think it is not unimportant for us to make sure that we estimate

at its full value the criminal element in the vagrant class. We have under close scrutiny and close personal acquaintance at our office about two thousand — really 2,200 professional mendicants. We have got acquainted with them not only by taking down a statement or information about them when arrested, but by following them into all the places where they appear, sitting down with them in the workhouse and in their lodging in the Bowery, talking with them, trying to get work for them when they come out of the penitentiary, chatting with them on the streets, following up the acquaintance with their wives, parents, paramours and their criminal associates. We have tried to find out all that we could about this 2,200 and the conclusion we have reached, if expressed for brevity in percentages, would be something like this. Sixty per cent. of them are those whom we might call defectives, because of some physical injury or because they are industrially inefficient, or because it is rather more difficult for them than for the average man to make a living and so they drift into making a living by begging and are supported in that way because they are willing to be supported and because the public is ready to support them.

We think that there are thirty per cent. who belong to the country tramp class, the people who easily drop into the more distinctly criminal class, a lower grade than the sixty per cent.

The key to the situation lies in the intelligent treatment of the remaining ten per cent. They are the most to be feared. The other sixty and thirty per cent. are not fixed in the habits of the mendicant. There have been, in my personal acquaintance in the campaign against mendicancy, two refreshing experiences, both of which have to do with the treatment of them on the criminal side. One was when we had that energetic and efficient Commissioner of Police, now President of the United States. I laid before him in a five-minute talk a plan for having the police in citizens' clothes for certain purposes. He was convinced, pushed the button, called the chief of police and requested him to go to work in that way at the beginning of the next month. The second experience was during the past few months when we have had the efficient assistance of the present District Attorney, Mr. Jerome. He has cleaned up, closed up, and made impossible the continuance of nineteen of the twenty-one back rooms in which the professional criminal mendicants of New York are manufactured and live, those back rooms in which liquor is illegally sold, in which gambling and prostitution are found. These rooms, the excuse for whose existence is the mendicant class, have been closed up.

I would emphasize what Mr. Forbes and Miss Willard say of policing the railroads. If with the co-operation of the authorities all tramping over the railroads were to cease, we should have on our hands about 6,000 crippled men who live by begging and who are the product of our neglect in the past. These 6,000 men create more than any other class our city problem of mendicancy. We might deal with them if we could stop the manufacture of new cripples. It is a hopeful thing. Twenty-two of these men have been placed in circumstances where they can make their own living and a few of them have now been at work for as long as eighteen months. About three weeks ago Mr. Forbes called me in and asked me to take a look at a young man who at once appealed to my sympathies. He was a young German boy with both legs gone. He had been in the workhouse three months. With very little information, except what we could get by talking, because it was difficult to get information about his past, we decided that the thing to do for that boy was to get him some legs and give him a job. At the end of a month he was in a position earning $15 a month, and is satisfactory to his employer and to the people who have taken this personal interest in him. It is worth while to work with the individual mendicant and to do it we must pursue intelligent reformatory as well as other methods. There must be reformatory and repressive measures as well as appeal to education and to the hospital.

Mr. J. J. Kelso, State Superintendent of Neglected and Dependent Children, Ontario, was invited to speak.

Mr. Kelso.— We have been talking this morning about reclaiming the vagrant instead of devising means of preventing the growth of that class. The time to begin is when he is a boy, for there never was a tramp who was not a boy once. The tramp does not always originate in the city. You rarely hear of a boy who has lived in a city until he is twelve or fourteen starting out as a tramp. My experience leads me to believe that many of the tramps have been born and raised in the rural districts, that is in towns and villages, where they have grown up in bad homes without education or employment. The great defect of our reform and charity work is that it is concentrated in the cities. In our part of the country we have every kind of charitable organization in the city, but in the towns and country districts there is nothing done to save a boy who is in danger of becoming a criminal. In investigating the reports of one of our prisons where there were over 300 young men, I found that the majority of them had come originally from country places. I got a letter

one day telling me about some neglected children in a village, and I sent an official to make an investigation. Before he got there I received another letter from the reeve saying: "It is all settled." I wrote and asked how they had settled it. He replied that they had paid their railway fare and sent them out of town. That was their mode of "settling" the trouble, and that is the short-sighted policy adopted in many villages and towns. Children under such circumstances grow up ignorant and lawless. What becomes of them? You know what becomes of any boy or girl brought up without education and without industrial training. When they get to be fifteen or sixteen years old, they are turned out by their own relatives, the neighborhood will not tolerate them, the farmers are afraid of them, and so they find their way to the cities, and become tramps and vagrants. We should organize some method or system of reclaiming and protecting these neglected children in our small towns and rural districts, because some of our worst cases come from the smallest places.

Mr. Hugh F. Fox, New Jersey.— Some years ago I was on my way to Savannah from New York during a time of yellow fever, and I saw at the quarantine station a freight train from which they took out between twenty and thirty tramps who had been seeking winter resorts in the sunny south. If it was possible for the government to quarantine against yellow fever by the employment of two or three health officers, is it not possible in some way to quarantine against vagrancy? We feel in New Jersey that if we could isolate New York, we should not have so many people in jail nor so many sweat shops nor so many vagrants to deal with. When the sweat shops are closed up in New York, they increase in New Jersey. When Mr. Forbes drives his mendicants out of New York, our tramp population increases. I would like to ask him to what extent he is in cooperation with others outside the city. When a case goes across the border of New Jersey, has he any way to follow it up?

Mr. James Forbes.— We try by correspondence to keep in touch with the Chief of Police and sheriffs throughout the country, but we should need ten stenographers to keep up the correspondence. We have to confine it to the larger cities, Philadelphia, Chicago and Boston, where the vagrant mendicants appear at one time or another. These cities seem to be stations along their line of travel. We all know that when the mendicants are going to leave New York, they go to Philadelphia and other cities, and our correspondence is designed to help Philadelphia and other cities as well as ourselves. Only recently two mendicants began their work in Newark who had gone from

New York. We notified the police and they were arrested. In a short time, although these two men were sent up for ninety days, they were again in 180 Park Row, New York. At the present time there are six or eight professional mendicants afraid to work in New York or Brooklyn who go across the Ferry to Hoboken to work. We are glad to be rid of them, even if they are not kept at Snake Hill after they are arrested on the New Jersey streets.

MR. BLEECKER VAN WAGENEN, New Jersey.— In the Oranges, a community of 60,000 people, we have been trying to do something to reduce the number of tramps. We have a Charity Organization Society that has a lodging house, wood yard, bath and all the modern appliances for dealing with tramps. We have also been obliged to take up the work of arresting those who refused to work, because we have found it impossible to get the police to do that efficiently.

MISS FRANCES G. CURTIS, Boston, Mass.— Our State Board of Charities is charged with the inspection of the 211 almshouses in the state. In 105 of these there were received in the last year over 33,000 tramps, and the tramp-houses are a very discouraging feature of almshouse management, for no attention is paid to the tramp as an individual, and the quarters provided for them are as a rule unspeakably dirty. The townspeople do not realize that each one of them is responsible for the tramps in their town, through kindly but foolish giving without requiring work in return. A tramp hates work more even than he does clean water. Some of the women's clubs are taking up the matter of a work test, and intend to see to it that in their towns a tramp works for what he gets. There is no doubt that the tramp will in that way be driven effectively from such towns, and a most decided check given to the making of tramps. If every woman in the country would refuse to give food without work in return, the tramp question would be solved.

MR. CHARLES MEREDITH HUBBARD of Cincinnati, General Secretary of the Associated Charities.— The last speaker emphasized the point I wish to make. The larger part of what has been said has to do with the tramp as a finished product. Whatever we can do to prevent the creation of the tramp is of more value than anything we can do to repress him after he has come into existence. We ought to remember that the tramp is simply the product of an economic law which we are all obeying. We are all inclined to follow the law of least resistance, getting the largest returns for the least labor. Whenever a man discovers that he can live as comfortably without work as he can with work, he is likely to adopt the easier method. The solution of

the difficulty lies in making it more difficult, more disagreeable, for a man to be a tramp than for him to be an honest working man. It becomes more difficult when the tramp is required to perform a reasonable amount of labor for meals and lodging. When we can convince the people who give that when they give meals and lodging to these men without work they are creating tramps, we shall have taken a long step in the solution of the problem; but we are never going to get them to refrain from giving unwisely until we have assured the public that there is a better and wiser way of caring for them.

The first requisite in the solution of the problem is therefore the provision of a place where a homeless man can obtain meals and lodging for a reasonable amount of work, whether it be under the auspices of a private society or a municipality.

There is one other thing we need to emphasize. It is an unkind thing to give alms to an able-bodied, honest man. Nine times out of ten people will give rather than refuse because they say they would rather give to ten dishonest men than have one honest man go unfed. We must then endeavor to convince people that it is unkind to give an honest man meals or money, because as soon as the honest man learns that by asking for meals and lodging and money, he can get them without work, he is confronted by a temptation which he may not be able to resist. That is the potent cause of the great army of tramps. The majority have been working men. It is possible for them to return to habits of industry, but we can never get them back to honest avocations until we adopt this method. The kindest thing to do for an honest man is to give him an opportunity to earn what he needs.

Mrs. E. E. Williamson, New Jersey.— We have heard from our able chairman what we should do for the elimination of the tramp, from other speakers what is being done to meet the evils of the tramp system, but in no way is the problem solved or have adequate remedies been suggested. Dr. Devine talks from a standpoint different from ours in every way. Mr. Jackson talks of rural districts quite different from ours. We are all speaking from our local standpoints. Mr. Hubbard has struck the key note. I could speak of the rural tramp, but I do not agree that such a large percentage of tramps are rural as has been claimed. In New Jersey we are overrun with a large class of able-bodied tramps. We have in the lower counties, in our lock-ups and county houses, many able-bodied tramps, and we have never known what to do with them and we don't know now. Some years ago I went to the common council of Elizabeth and asked them to close the tramp house. They had given them

bread and coffee and a night's lodging. It took me six months to convince them that it was wise, but we have not been troubled with tramps since. The tramps go to Newark now. But I do not see that we have arrived at any solution. The only thing that I can see to do is to begin from the educational standpoint. If the west would resolve that every man must be made to work, I believe that we in the east would not have so many tramps. Tramps are made in the west. Every tramp you meet in New Jersey comes from the west. They know Colorado and Nebraska by heart. They come to New Jersey that they may pass over into New York and get into the hands of the Charity Organization Society, who know how to fix the tramp up and pass him up through New York and back west again. I hope before we leave the subject some real way of handling the tramp will be put before us. In my long experience I am not able to give you a point on it yet. Dr. Devine has sent many tramps into my city. I have tried to deal with them with the help of the police there. We have sent them to jail, but when they come out we have no way to deal with them, and they pass on to Philadelphia and then back to New York to plant themselves on Dr. Devine and the Charity Organization Society again. The suggestions of Mr. Hubbard should be borne in mind. They should be made to work. Some of them will. I know a woman in my town who has all her house cleaning done by a tramp. He disappears every winter and comes back in the summer and does her house-cleaning, and then disappears with the money he makes. He is an interesting man, looks like a gentleman, does his work well, but by the 15th of September he is on the road again. If you could stop them in time, you might make of these tramps law-abiding and proper citizens.

CHARLES A. COLCORD, Deputy Superintendent of Adult Poor, Somerville, Mass.— The subject to which I desire to devote the few minutes allotted is the System of Probation as applied to Massachusetts State Farm prisoners, which was established by the State Board of Charity, July 1, 1901, and is now in force. A short sketch of this institution may not be amiss.

The State Farm is in south-eastern Massachusetts, thirty miles from Boston, and the inmates thereof are variously employed, principally in agriculture, reclaiming new land, chair-seating, shoe-making and repairing, and tailoring.

The Farm consists of 900 acres of land, some 400 acres of which is under a high state of cultivation, the product of which, although large, is all consumed in the maintenance of the institution.. The buildings are constructed of brick, with granite trim-

mings, and are divided as follows: Prison department, capacity 800; pauper department, 300; asylum for insane criminals, 500.

The prisoners are committed by the various municipal and district courts and trial justices throughout the state for offenses of drunkenness, vagrancy, tramping, and idle and disorderly conduct.

The sentence in case of drunkenness is indeterminate, maximum one year, and two years for the other offenses, and the State Board of Charity is empowered to release such prisoners on probation, when, in their judgment, a reformation has been effected. To this end they have ordered that prisoners sentenced for one year shall be entitled to release at the expiration of three months, to remain at liberty during the balance of their sentence, on condition that they shall not return to their former habits of dissipation; but, failing in this respect, they shall be returned to remain four months, and, if again they violate the conditions of their release, they are returned for five months or the balance of their original sentence.

Vagrants, tramps, idle and disorderly persons are entitled to release at the expiration of nine months and may remain at liberty during the balance of their sentence, provided they do not return to their former habits of vagrancy, but failing in this, they must return for the remainder of their sentence. This sentence may seem rather severe, but it is rapidly solving the tramp question and ridding our Commonwealth of the vagrant class.

The Board, in order to facilitate its purpose, has appointed in the principal cities and towns from which the State Farm receives its prisoners, reputable, charitably-inclined gentlemen, as probation visitors, many of whom are affiliated with church, temperance and charitable work, and, contrary to the custom formerly in vogue, none are in any way connected with court or police duties. By all engaged in correctional and charity work this departure from old-time methods will be well understood.

To these visitors the probationers are instructed to report within twenty-four hours following their release, and as often, thereafter, during the period of their probation, as the visitor may direct. Failure so to do is a violation of one of the terms of their parole.

All prisoners, on release, are furnished with transportation to their usual places of abode and are given one dollar gratuity, and, to better carry out their method of continued supervision, on February 17, 1902, the Board established an office in close proximity to the terminal railroad station, Boston, where all prisoners destined to points beyond the city must report, on

arrival, and where they are met by one of the Board's officers who personally supervises their departure.

For the purpose of executing their order, the Board has designated four of its employees, viz: three men and one woman, who are commissioned by the Governor as Special District Police Officers, whose duty it is to arrest and return to the State Farm, on a warrant issued by the Board, such probationers as have failed to conform to the conditions of their parole.

During the year ending in February, 1903, there were admitted to the State Farm, 1,866 prisoners, and during the same period, 1,676 were released, of which number 888 were placed under the surveillance of probation visitors, and, during the year, 362, or about 41 per cent. so released, were returned for violation of the conditions of their parole. This number may appear proportionately large, but we must take into consideration the fact that the class sent to the State Farm, though misdemeanants in statute definition, are many of them hardened criminals and incorrigibles, who have been before the courts times without number. The consensus of opinion as a result of interviews with the committing justices is to the effect that the State Farm is the place of last resort to which these men and women are sent. The pleadings of wife and children for the husband and father to be released or placed on probation have been heard and granted again and again. Sentences of a few days, and then a few months in the local jails and houses of correction, have been given without apparently acting as a deterrent to these people in their downward career, and now they come to us, morally, physically, and, in many instances, mentally depraved, as the result of dissipation, debauchery and vice. Such is the class we are trying to save, and the result, thus far, not only meets the approval of the State Board of Charity, but is also highly encouraging to the probation visitors throughout the state.

It may be said that the object of the Board in establishing this system of probation is not confined to the hope of reforming the above described classes, but more particularly is the expectation of benefitting their wives and children, through the efforts of the probation visitors in placing the heretofore worthless husbands and fathers in employment where, under the supervision and advice of the visitor, they are induced to work for the support of their families. Instances have been brought to the attention of the Board, of men who had failed to contribute to the support of their families for years, but eventually have become self-supporting.

MR. JOHN J. SLOAN, Superintendent of Correction, Chicago. — Miss Willard in her remarks advised you that there were sixty

to seventy thousand tramps missing in Chicago, and while I cannot account for all of them, I know where some of them are.

In the House of Correction or the "Bridewell" we receive about ten thousand persons per annum, sixty per cent. of whom are drunkards or moral perverts.

The drunkard has no respect for the decencies of civilized life, the vagrant would preferably beg than work, and the tramp would rather steal than seek employment: all of them are a menace to the community, no respecters of law, and are instilling into the youth of the land knowledge of crimes and of practices that are shocking beyond description, the truth of which is well known to the workers in the slum districts of our large cities.

The example that this class sets before the youth of the land does much to encourage a disrespect and a disregard for law and order, which in most of our cities appears to be on the increase. If the peace and prosperity of this nation is to be conserved and promoted, it will only be done through a respect for law and the ability of the authorities to protect the interests of the community and to keep down the undercurrents of society that are ever menacing it. The daily example that this class of offenders shows by its public disregard for law and disrespect for authority, is an example of incipient anarchy that should be repressed, otherwise it progresses by stages until it assumes the more serious and dangerous form of crime.

Yet they are all human, entitled to consideration, and must be treated with kindness, and in my opinion the greatest kindness that can be exercised towards them is firmness. They want repression first and reformation afterwards.

In the Bridewell we have three mottos. The first is OBEY. Unless a man learns that great law you can do nothing with him. He must obey, and until he learns to follow directions and carry out instructions laid down for his guidance and direction, reformation or correction is out of the question, and those who are constantly seeking to tie the hands of the board of managers and officials of the various correctional institutions in the land, seem to have forgotten the fact that institutions are primarily designed for the protection of the community and secondarily for the correction and proper training of the delinquents of society.

Our second motto is GET BUSY, and we have shops and industries to afford every opportunity of keeping busy after one "gets busy." The result of this policy is seen in the fact that whereas in former years our greatest population was during the winter months, and it was currently reported that thousands of tramps flocked to Chicago for the sake of the food and shelter given them at the Bridewell, under a policy which in effect

means "no work, no eating," our winter months now show the least population, and the tramp who is well advised gives Chicago and the Bridewell a wide berth, as Miss Willard's figures of "seventy thousand missing" would indicate.

Our third motto is Do It Now, not to-morrow or the next day, but now, believing that promptness and readiness to do a thing when needed or required leads to habits which in all probability will correct the procrastination of this class. Hence out of a daily population varying from fourteen to fifteen hundred we have no idle persons, except those who may be sick in the hospital, employing even the cripples at making hammocks, baskets, etc., and other occupations which we devise from time to time to meet the requirements of our constantly changing class, endeavoring at all times to make the institution in fact what it is in name, a "work house," and compelling every inmate to work at something to recompense the city for taking care of him.

The evils of the petty fine system, of which I have been asked to say a word, are gradually disappearing in Chicago, owing to the dissemination of more enlightened views amongst the public over the absurd practice of committing persons time and again for the same offense on sentences of a few days. It has been the custom for years to send people up for drunkenness on fines equivalent to from three to ten days' commitment, with the result that their sentence would expire while they were still confined in the hospital, and we have been obliged to keep them for weeks at a time after their sentence had expired before they were sufficiently restored to health to be released, and time and again they have gone out to be returned within a few days in a deplorable condition. Our records show instances of persons having been committed over three hundred times, and one woman died about a year ago, serving her three hundred and thirteenth commitment, having been an inmate of the Institution more or less for the past twenty years.

The curse of the petty fine system is that no one is enabled to accomplish any reformation, and in the majority of cases the temporary deprivation of a few days only aggravates the desire for liquor, and the person is released to go on another debauch and to be re-committed ofttimes the next day. I am glad to be advised that in eastern states there are institutions where this class can be detained until they have gained self-control, and on account of the longer commitment, they can be taught to obey the ordinary laws of civilization, as well as be weaned away from the associates and environments that in so many instances are the cause of their downfall.

It is my opinion that, after all, lack of education is the primary cause of the commitment of the vast majority of these persons. Sixty per cent. of our people have had no education or industrial training to speak of, and from lack of regular employment drift into idleness, vagrancy and crime. Our records show that over sixty per cent. of our population are waiters, bartenders, drivers, hostlers, laborers and persons of no occupation, and it is my belief that if compulsory educational laws and manual training departments had been as prominent a feature of our manual system twenty years ago as they are to-day, the tramp problem would have been largely solved by this time.

Mrs. B. H. Trumbull, Commissioner on Child Labor, Oregon.— I would like to say, in defense of the West and for Mrs. Williamson's information, that the reason the East gets the tramps is because the West has work for them. We need their help in harvesting our great crops of wheat and fruit. But the key to the solution of this tramp problem lies in the proper education of the child — in the reform of our public school system, which must be held responsible for a large proportion of our tramps — turned out of school at 13 or 14, with no knowledge of the power of their hands, our boys and girls are forced into employment at beggarly wages, and when hard times come what is left for them but trampdom? But six per cent. of our children enter the high school. And our child-labor laws and compulsory-education laws are products of this sort of civilization. We can deal with this problem only at the beginning with any hope of reform.

Miss Mary E. Richmond, General Secretary Society for Organizing Charity, Philadelphia.— From my own limited experience, for I have no statistics, I can only say that the majority of tramps do not seem to be overburdened with education. That is not their chief trouble. An educated tramp is, of course, a harder tramp to deal with, but the large majority are without education. What we need is not only compulsory education, but the adaptation of our public school systems to the needs of modern life.

I should like to speak of the education of the general public concerning the tramp. We have heard a good deal about it at this meeting, but may I add a suggestion as to method? It seems to me that our great need is a more positive gospel. We need to make it perfectly clear to the general public that when we say "Don't," we are also prepared to go forward a further step and say "Do." When we say "Don't give to the man on the street," it should be because we are prepared to do so much more than that. We do not want careless people to give him five cents or

for the tramp question. Horace Greeley said in the time of reconstruction, when the resumption of specie payment was up, that the way to resume was to resume. The way to get rid of tramps is to stop feeding them and to stop passing them along the railroad.

Mrs. Carrie L. Grout, Probation Officer, Rockford, Ill.— I protest that we in the west do not originate any more tramps than any other place. I am pleased to note that the tendency of philanthropy is always toward elimination by prevention, along with reformative and suppressive measures. One thing which has come to me with great force has been mentioned, that if we can have industrial training in our public schools, in the lower grades especially, we shall have hit upon one of the things which makes for the prevention of tramps. I have had experience with one of the sleekest tramps you ever saw, a man who can put on the polished manners of a gentleman, who has been through an academy in New Hampshire, where he originated, who has been to college at Oberlin and after five years of Greek and Latin he does not know one thing by which he can earn an honest living, except to work with his hands under the direction of a boss. I have watched the boys for a number of years who have come out of the public schools where the sentiment was favorable to manual training, not as a fad, but where they learned to do something with tools and machinery so that they could go right to work in shops and earn an honest living. There is one sure way to prevent tramps. "If you want to stop having rascals, stop raising them:" stop making tramps from the beginning. I asked Mrs. Amigh if there were any incorrigible girls. She hesitated a moment and then said, "There is no incorrigible girl except a defective." There is no incorrigible tramp except a defective tramp, but we are making defective tramps all the time at an alarming rate. The alms houses, the refuges, do not begin to take care of the multitude of this population. The educational influence does not go far enough. You people belonging to this Conference understand the dangers and the methods, but the people at large do not understand and it is your business as people who have undertaken this responsibility to send out in some way this educational influence to the people, where it will do some good.

Mr. Henry C. Wright, Superintendent Union Bethel, Cincinnati.— Our problem is many sided. There is one side which has not been touched. If we make it impossible for a man to get a free lodging in one city he will go to the next, if he cannot get there then he will work. The railroads carry tramps by the hundreds. We have got to educate the transportation officials. They say it is impossible to stop this thing, that a brakeman

cannot find out who is on his train; that the tramp boards the train after it has started and then the conductor and brakeman can not get at them, as they are in box cars. Here is where we can bring some influence to bear. These men are not going to walk very far and if we can hinder them from going on the railroad it is a large element in the solution of the problem. Every loaded freight car is locked: every unloaded freight car is unlocked, and that is where the men ride. If we could get the railroad companies to lock empty freight cars it would be a large element in the solution. That with reference to the tramp as a finished product.

Now on the other side. We have gangs of boys with whom we have had difficulty. There is one gang of boys that I have known about from the time they were in the kindergarten. When these boys get to be fourteen or fifteen they want to have a new experience. They want to see the world and will do anything they can to get out of the city. Of this gang there are at least six who have gone to Pittsburg, to Indianapolis and some other cities. Most of them have come back. We have young boys come to us from other cities. In that case we wire through our police to the police of those cities saying we question whether these boys have a right to be here.

This desire to have a new experience on the part of boys is often the beginning of a tramp life. We should use every means possible to make it hard for a boy to steal a ride away from the city. By a combination of yard police to watch blind baggage riders, and the locking of empty cars the floating element could be largely controlled. Railroad companies of their own volition I fear will not undertake this task with any thoroughness, it costs too much. I presume the only way to get at it will be through legislation, then a subsequent careful watching by society agents to see that the provisions are carried out.

Mr. Homer Folks, Commissioner of Public Charities, N. Y.— After attending conferences a good many years I notice that when we take up some particular question and in the course of our discussion find that it presents a good many difficulties and that the way is not altogether clear for its solution, we are apt to be told that there are three or four things each of which must be done, each of which will remove the question from consideration. This year particularly we speak of the reform of the public school system, the introduction of industrial training, kindergartens, and compulsory school attendance. We all believe in all those things and to the extent that we get them all of our other questions are simplified. But no one believes that the vagrancy question will wait for its solution upon the

adoption of any of these four things. In regard to the vagrancy situation, as in regard to all the others I believe that our knowledge is far ahead of our practice and that any community which puts into practice three-quarters of the suggestions made to-day will find itself practically relieved of the tramp difficulty.

Mr. Devine asked the privilege of a personal explanation. He said "When my esteemed friend from New Jersey charges the New York Charity Organization Society with giving the tramp a bath and cleaning him up, we plead guilty, but we do not send him on."

The Secretary announced the method of forming the Committee on Time and Place and called for action by the members.

Adjourned at one P. M.

SECTION MEETING.

COUNTY AND MUNICIPAL INSTITUTIONS.

Thursday P. M., May 7.

The first section meeting was held on Thursday afternoon, Mr. W. H. Allen, of New York, in the chair. A report by Mr. C. L. Stonaker, of Denver, was read. (Page 373.) The discussion was opened by a brief paper by Mr. Chas. A. Ellwood, professor of sociology, university of Missouri. (Page 386.) Mr. Wm. J. Ahern, secretary of the New Hampshire Board of Charities, followed.

Mr. Ahern. — Almshouses and jails should continue to be discussed by this Conference till improvements are made in them. In New Hampshire we gradually drifted into the town-house system and from that to the county system, with the county almshouse, until to-day there are but three town farms in New Hampshire and they are maintained more for local prisoners than for caring for the poor. At a recent session of the legislature a law was passed making all the insane charges of the state to be cared for by the state. That has been urged for years by the State Board of Charities. Here I would like to suggest that one of the best ways of obtaining suitable legislation is to have a state conference of charities at an opportune time when the legislators can hear these questions discussed. The advocacy of state care of the insane was begun in 1895 and has been persistently continued until the law was finally adopted at the last session. Through the efforts of the State Board and

the women's clubs of the state, the feeble minded are to be taken from the almshouses and it looks as though the almshouse in our state would henceforth be a home for those who have made a failure of life and who are stranded in their old age without friends or means, an infirmary for people unable to care for themselves. But another thing should be changed. Every county farm is by law a house of correction and many prisoners are sent there for minor offences. It is our hope to have a state farm like that of Massachusetts. Our question of "settlement" has been nearly abolished. Probably ninety per cent. of the aid granted is a county charge. Our jails should be improved. A place where men of all ages and kinds, with nothing to do, are kept together for crime is a breeding place for vice. Jail prisoners should have work.

Mr. James F. Jackson, of Minnesota, said that Minnesota was one of the first states to take entire charge of the insane. They were put into state hospitals, but under the board of control they are again put into county institutions, just as other states are taking them out. They are building first-class almshouses and now if one desires to study almhouse construction he knew nothing better than what Hon. Wm. P. Letchworth has written on the subject. A helpful paper has also been prepared in Wisconsin on the subject.

Miss Mary Vida Clarke, States Charities Aid, N. Y., explained in detail the working of that Association, showing how wide is its scope, following as it does, the administration of all the charities of the state. Such an association secures cooperation between the local charities, and tempers economy with humanity. There is a great deal that a county committee can do in the way of bringing about changes and improvements and this has been done by the committees of the State Charities Aid Association. But there are many problems beyond the locality and it is essential that there should be a union of localities if anything is to be accomplished. The New York Assciation is a body of three or four hundred people who co-operate with the county committees and who receive complaints and suggestions from all over the state and endeavor to bring about reforms throughout the state.

Mr. Meserve, of Delaware, was asked to explain the existence of the whipping post.

Mr. A. S. Meserve, Warden of Workhouse, Wilmington, Del. — We have a whipping post where public whipping is part of the sentence of the courts. I would be glad to have the state

rid itself of this relic of barbarity, but it will exist until public opinion is worked up to the extent of demanding that it shall be abolished. In the last year thirty-nine persons have been publicly whipped and it is a very unpleasant duty. A bill was introduced into the legislature last winter to do away with it, and it was making satisfactory progress when one afternoon in the corridor of the state house a New York crook put his arm around a certain member and took from his shirt front a diamond stud. He was arrested and said that he would commit suicide rather than go to the whipping post. The legislators said that if it had that effect on crooks it was worth having, and so the law failed. We have also the stocks and pillory for felons. The Friends are taking up the matter of the whipping post and are raising money to pay good speakers who are going up and down the state to work up public sentiment so that these forms of punishment may be abolished at the next legislature.

MR. JACKSON. — What effect has the whipping on the wife-beater?

MR. MESERVE. — We have never whipped a wife-beater. The wife generally repents and the man gets off with a reproof.

Miss Higgins, of Boston, was asked to describe the work of the Massachusetts Civic League.

MISS ALICE L. HIGGINS, Associated Charities, Boston.— The Massachusetts Civic League has been organized for the purpose of educating public opinion. They are trying to win the co-operation of the clergy of the state. The League has been interested in bills this winter for the care of children and for the education of the adult blind.

Mrs. E. E. Williamson was asked to explain the organization of the New Jersey State Charities Aid Association.

MRS. E. E. WILLIAMSON.— Our Association is supported by private subscription, by members who subscribe annually. We are not bound to any legislature, any governor, or to any one else. We have a small appropriation of $600 to cover office expenses, and the legislature prints our report. In New York there is no such appropriation. We are glad to welcome any one who will subscribe to our constitution.

MISS CLARKE.—In New York the membership is secured by the assistant secretary going about the state, with letters of introduction to the prominent people of the counties and organizing committees. She probably meets fifty or sixty people in a place, presents the work of the Association to them, and a general meet-

ing is called and an address on the work of the Association given. The secretary visits all the local institutions and is familiar with all the subjects. We have no money from public sources. Our work might be jeopardized if we had any state appropriation. We are supported entirely by contributions and from membership.

MR. JEFFREY R. BRACKETT, Maryland.— If the proposition is to have a state inspector for each county, then I should say that it is a very bad proposition. You do not want a man too much tied by local interests. You want your inspector to have high standards, and how is he going to get them if his observation is confined to one county? Inspectors should be inspectors for the whole state. Then, as to the method of the appointment. If you are to have a state inspector it is better to have him the secretary of the unpaid state board. There is little value in ex officio oversight. It is of great value to an inspector to have over him a board representative of the elements that make up the community; a board of people thinking about these matters, and who represent the community. On the other hand, there is a reflex educational work. It is a good thing to have an inspector go before such a board and tell them what he or she thinks.

MR. W. B. BUCK, Inspector State Charities Aid Association, New York.— It is hardly necessary to have one inspector for each county. We should give to our volunteer unpaid state board of charities all the inspectors they can use, and it does not seem to me that any of the counties would have enough institutions to take the entire time of one inspector.

MR. AHERN.— In a small state it would be out of the question to appoint one inspector for each county.

MRS. ELIZA J. CRISLER, Secretary Decatur County Board Charities and Correction, Indiana.— In Indiana each county has a county board of charities consisting of six members appointed by the judge of the Circuit Court. It is our duty to visit the county institutions four times a year, and as much oftener as we think necessary. Each quarter we are required to make a report to the county commissioner, to the state board of charities and to the judge of the Circuit Court. It is our duty to make a thorough inspection of the institutions, from cellar to garret. In Decatur our commissioners have acted in accordance with our suggestions, but in some counties they have not paid much attention to the county board. The state board, however, visits the institutions also.

MR. L. MILLER, Decatur county, Indiana.— The members of the county boards are appointed two for one year, two for two years and two for three years. Their duties are to visit all the

institutions of charity in the county, all the infirmaries, lockups and jails and homes for orphans supported either by public or private funds. Half of the members must be of one political party and half of the other, and there must be women on the board. They receive no salaries. An allowance of $50 for the whole board is made for expenses. The county board reports to the state board, and the state board has power to compel action on the part of the county commissioner. There must be two women on the board, but we have three.

Rev. J. R. Atkinson, New Jersey.— Our law makes it mandatory to take children out of alms houses and put them into homes. That has worked well, so that there is scarcely a child in any almshouse, except it be waiting to be dealt with presently. The law recognizes the distinction of religion, and Roman Catholic children are put in Catholic homes, and Protestant children in Protestant homes. We are so satisfied with the idea of placing children in homes that I am confident we shall never go back to the institution.

Adjourned at 5 P. M.

SECTION MEETING.

COUNTY AND MUNICIPAL INSTITUTIONS.

Tuesday P. M., May 12.

William H. Allen, Ph. D., General Agent for the Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor, of New York, chairman.

A paper was read by Amos W. Butler of Indianapolis, Ind. (Page 392.)

DISCUSSION.

Mrs. Alice N. Lincoln.— Massachusetts lacks a central system for its prisons. We have a state's prison, a reformatory for men, and a reformatory for women. These come directly under the management of the Prison Commission. We have in addition twenty-two county jails, and the little work I have done for prisoners in Massachusetts has been in trying to get some central system. The county commissioners have a good deal to say about these county jails. They buy the supplies and are largely responsible for the government of prisons, and that is the reason why it is very hard to change the system. I can see many advantages in a central system. Four years ago in studying the conditions, armed with a letter from Governor Wolcott, I found great disparities in their management, more than

could be accounted for from the fact that one jailor is better than another; there is a different standard in different places. There was not much attempt at classification. Under a central system, classification could be better. I feel that it is hard that prisoners awaiting trial and those under sentence should be shut up in the same institution. I do not think that boys who are confined for small offenses should be shut up with murderers. I wrote a brief report and a memorial to the Governor. Some of the worst abuses have been remedied. The jails for the most part were well administered and the jailors seemed to be humane men. The fault seemed to be with the system rather than with the individuals who administered it. I believe we should get better results in Massachusetts if all our penal institutions were under the Prison Commission.

MR. MICHAEL HEYMAN, of New Orleans, La.— We have two jails, the county and parish prison, and the workhouse where they do not work. The workhouse is dilapidated. But we have now a jail which is new and clean and which has plenty of water and bathrooms. The main thing needed in Louisiana is education. Our people are kind-hearted. Southern hospitality is not a myth; it is true. Our women are the best in the world, and when the women are good they make the men good; men will be educated by women. By and by we shall have a state board of charities; we are working for it; the foundation is laid. We have a law for a boys' reformatory, though it has not yet been built. I can report progress in Louisiana. We have two immense sugar plantations; the prisoners have pretty good lodgings and clean clothing. They are no longer ill treated; the lease system has been abolished.

The chairman called attention to the existence of the fee system in various states, under which sheriffs are paid for the care of prisoners.

ROBERT W. HILL, Inspector State Charities Institutions, Albany, New York.— The fee system does not prevail in all counties of New York, but it prevails in a good many of the rural counties, and as a consequence of that fee system there has been in the judgment of many encouragement given to trampery. It is for the interest of the minor police officials as well as for those in charge of the jail to crowd into that institution as many tramps as possible. And in one of the counties, I remember, about two years ago, there was an inquiry into what they called a conspiracy to mulct the county of the maintenance of a large number of tramps who would pass from town to town, going in a circle of about eight weeks' duration, so that at the end of that

time they would begin again in a community and be passed on around. I do not know what the result of the inquiry was, but I know that there has been a great deal of public indignation at the expense in which the counties have been involved by this system, and I am sure that if the proposition voiced in the paper of Mr. Butler were adopted it would be a great step toward the abolition of many of the evils associated with jails. I refer to the care, supervision and control of jails by the state authorities.

A jail instead of being a local institution ought to be in all propriety under the care of the state itself. There are many difficulties in the way of securing such state control; but I believe that all these difficulties could be overcome. The local politicians always look upon a jail as one of the perquisites to be farmed out. As long as it is profitable, just so long will it remain a part of the spoils of the politician. If it could be removed entirely from the arena of politics, and could be controlled as other state institutions are controlled, we might look for such radical reforms as will do away with the disgrace to our civilization which the county jail now is. As long as there is in any way profit to the jailor or sheriff associated with its administration, there will be evils which cannot be rooted out.

There are a good many other matters which have been alluded to by Mr. Butler. There are county jails in which the female prisoners have the privilege of all the corridors as well as of the kitchens, and there are men who have the same privilege. And there is formed a close association which can only result in evil. I found children of nine or ten years, in jails in the state of New York, temporarily confined. It ought to be impossible to make use of such an institution for such a purpose.

Question: Do the county commissioners contract for any food supplies?

Answer: The commissioners do not buy the supplies themselves, but they do make an appropriation for the maintenance of the prison. The expenditure of that maintenance fund is under control of the sheriff, subject to the order of the Board of Supervisors.

The chairman called upon Rev. Father Foy of New Jersey.

Rev. Francis A. Foy, Jersey City, New Jersey.— As to the boarding system, as I call it, by which the sheriff is allowed to maintain a boarding house in his own interest at the greatest possible expense to the county and the most profit to himself, so that he is personally interested in having the largest number of boarders possible, it seems to me that the system fails whenever it is presented to an intelligent mind. It is in the line

of reform with regard to all other public officers to have them maintained by a salary rather than by a fee system, and for my own part I am inclined to carry that so far as not only to abolish the personal interest of the sheriff with respect to the maintenance of the prisoners, but I should deprive him of all interest in fees of any kind, either in civil or criminal matters. I believe that we can get plenty of good, upright, intelligent citizens, men of respectability and character, to accept all these offices on a salary basis; but if we allow the present system to remain as it is we shall have a certain number of individuals interested in it, especially those who are in political power and those who are in office. If once we have discovered a line of reform, I believe it is well to pursue that line persistently and courageously. We do not know under the present system how much it costs to maintain prisoners. Then we shall have the light of public criticism upon the board of free-holders if they are filling the jail with an unnecessary number of employees. If the sheriff is dependent only upon his salary, it will be his policy to turn magistrates from committing people to the jail unnecessarily.

CHARLES P. KELLOGG, Waterbury, Conn.— I am very glad we have taken up this subject of the sheriff fee system. It seems to me it is the first step to be taken in the improvement of our penal institutions. In Connecticut the State pays for the support of prisoners in the county jail $2.25 a week. The profit the sheriff receives does not depend upon the time the prisoner serves but upon the number of prisoners; his fees are incidental, derived from mileage, etc. In New Haven there is a combined salary and fee system; the salary is $1,000, and fees received make it $10,000. The Chief Justice of the Supreme Court gets $6,000. Of course the position becomes a valuable political prize and the sheriffs exert large influence. A reformatory system cannot be applied to the jails so long as they are under local control. I have visited prisons in England, and was much surprised by their classification of prisoners, the application to them of civil service principles, and the prisoners' aid societies. In Connecticut we have a fair sort of classification and the sexes are well separated; and prisoners are also well employed under a contract by which the revenues to the state are very small. But under state control we could get some better classification of prisoners.

Question: Is there any reason why you should not have one large workhouse rather than a number of small county workhouses?

Answer: The objection to a large workhouse would be the cost of transportation.

Question: What is your jail population?

Answer: The daily average in our jails is about one thousand. The commitments during the year amount to about six thousand, representing about two thousand different persons. But our jail statistics in Connecticut are not accurate. We cannot get the exact number of different persons committed during the year, only the total number of commitments. I see no reason why a modified Bertillon system could not be adopted in the county jails.

THE CHAIRMAN:— We have one advantage in this particular fight in regard to sheriffs' fees. When we talk about reformatories the objection is made that it is a proposition to add to the taxes, but if we can show that by adopting the salary system we save money over the fee system, we shall have a strong argument with the tax-payer. We found this argument of avail in New Jersey in reference to probation. I believe that if we use the economical argument more to convince tax-payers on sound financial principles, we shall find the moral argument of more weight.

I want to turn now to the jail matron. I visited the New Jersey jail not long ago, and we could hear the women talking for a block before we got there. There were ten colored women and three white; two of the white women were young, fifteen and seventeen years of age, simply girls. One was arrested for the first time. There was no record that she had done anything; she was with a woman who had. This girl was in among these corrupt women, and the other girl was serving her second sentence of three months. Her mother told me that she had trouble with the girl, that she had pounded on the door and a neighbor had her sent to the jail, where she had made the acquaintance of the other women. I found a little girl seven years of age. She had passed a counterfeit bill, and she was there as a witness. That is a picture from one of our county jails. Now I want Mrs. Hayman to tell us just what work she is doing in Louisville, by way of decided contrast with what is done in nine hundred and ninety-nine out of a thousand jails in the United States.

MRS. KATE G. HAYMAN of Louisville, Kentucky.— The police matrons in Kentucky are nominated by a board composed of representative ladies. We have a number from the W. C. T. U., a number from the Home of the Friendless, one from the Charity Organization Society, one from the Flower Mission; they nominate the police matrons. The bill that was passed in 1898 provides that there shall be two police matrons at a station. So far we have had but one assistant, but we hope to get others

later. We have our office in the jail, and are only there by the courtesy of the jailor. We are under the chief of police and report to him, and have to ask permission of the jailor to go into the cells; but he is very courteous and his permission is readily given. We have three wards for the women, two colored wards, and one white ward. It is the duty of the matrons to search them, see that they take a bath, and then assign them to the ward to which they belong. I had one girl of fourteen years of age, and I had to take her case through four different courts. We wanted to turn her over into the hands of the Board of Children's Guardians, and the friends of the girl were determined that we should not do it, but we did it. We have also charge of all the young boys brought into the jail, and all the children. We see that they are cared for. Our jail is old and dilapidated. We generally have about 260 men and women there. My report from the matron this morning shows that there are 38 women in the jail, three white and the balance colored, and four insane among that number. We are trying to classify our prisoners. We have separate quarters for the first offenders, for the second grade, and then for the children. The judges of the police court are very considerate and kind. They generally ask us about the women, and if there are girls under sixteen we always turn them over to the Board of Children's Guardians. We have a standing contract with the Mother Superior of the House of the Good Shepherd, to which they may be committed. For the first offense of drunkenness we have the woman dismissed; for the second we have her put under bonds to keep the peace and let her go. I keep a record. If she returns before that sentence is expired, then she goes to the Convent of the Good Shepherd. She remains there during good conduct. If she does not give satisfaction in the convent, the Mother Superior reports to me, and I let her serve her year out, but if she does well I try to get her a place and have her placed out. There is an industry connected with this convent and all prisoners are at work; but in the county jails they cannot be kept at work. In the jail we have a large number waiting to be sent to the penitentiary. We place them in No. 13. When they become disorderly we try the George Junior plan of having them form their own courts We have had one who makes a very good judge; then we have the lawyers on both sides. I sit there as a spectator, and if they find that a certain woman has been bad we put her in a cell and feed her upon bread and water. In that way we keep up the discipline of the jail. We have to accompany all the prisoners to the police court and to the criminal court. We have to remain with them during the trial, and that is the hardest

work we have to do. We had last month 109 prisoners; the month before 108. The numbers are coming down. We have had so far thirty re-arrests. We have had two thousand and some odd prisoners during the last year. We go on duty in the morning at seven o'clock, and do not get off duty until two o'clock the next day, which gives thirty-one hours' continuous work. I receive $65 a month, and my assistant $45. We are paid by the city and county.

Question: Have you any probation system?

Answer: This is all the probation system we have; that is, suspending the fine and letting the woman go out. The only way I can look after a woman is by taking her name, and if she is brought back, then the fine is enforced.

MRS. LINCOLN.— I would like to ask if the Sisters of the Good Shepherd will receive people of any faith?

Answer: Yes. We should be glad if we had a place to which we could send our Protestant women, but we have not. We have no place but the workhouse. Our law is not broad enough; it only applies to cities of the first class.

MRS. ANNIE E. PALMATEER, Terre Haute, Indiana.— We have a very good police matron law in our state. Our county jail is inadequate for the classification of our prisoners, but fourteen years ago a woman was appointed to make the county jail a part of her special care. The jail is never for a moment without the presence of a matron. The children are turned over to the Board of Children's Guardians. In eight years the matron has sent fifty-nine cases to the maternity hospital. We can also get girls into the Home of the Good Shepherd of Indianapolis. Our matron goes to the court room with every woman. We have tried to improve our jail. I think there is no better managed jail in the state. We asked the sheriff what he would do to beautify the jail. He was the first sheriff in the county to employ a matron. That was before there was a law; but this sheriff hired a matron. He is allowed $25 for house rent, and he hired the matron out of that sum. This sheriff gave us some plans for beautifying the grounds. Then we went before the public council and asked for an appropriation, and so we secured some money for a jail yard and some for other things. Our matron compels them to keep their rooms clean; and they have every facility for bathing and washing their bedding. Our jail has sheets and pillow slips and towels except in the very lowest quarters, and there they have cotton blankets almost white.

THE CHAIRMAN: In the State of New Jersey we have a hammock which varies in color according to the time it has been used.

GEORGE S. WILSON, Secretary Board of Charities of District of Columbia.— I want to say a word of what we call the house of detention in Washington. It is not the outgrowth of any particular agitation, or the fruition of any particular line of work. But it came about rather quickly and rather easily, as some things do. We tried to get a probation law and a juvenile court in the last session of Congress. But the bill was cut up and they cut out the judge because it involved a salary. But they passed part of the law, prohibiting the sending of children under seventeen years of age to the jail unless convicted of some serious offense. They also provided for a probation officer under the direction of the Children's Guardians, and a small appropriation for a house of detention. This house of detention is a supplement to the police system and not to the jail system. We have the same matrons or one less at the central place, which at present is a rented building in a quiet place, and one or two officers in charge, and two or three matrons. Every child or woman arrested is kept there over night. And in that way every child or woman is under direction of the police matron. Our police superintendent is a humane and progressive man. We have a quiet, inconspicuous vehicle, and in that van the boys and girls are taken to the police court. The officer in charge is a man in plain clothes.

MR. AMOS W. BUTLER of Indiana.— Mr. Butler having been asked by the chairman to close the meeting by a few words in regard to discharged convicts said:

We should make such provision for the ex-prisoner as shall encourage him when he leaves the prison to feel that there are those who care for him, and that if he will conduct himself properly, he can find encouragement and be supported on the outside. We have in our state now a system of parole by which every one goes out as a ward of the state, and the state agent finds employment for them and visits them regularly during their time of parole. The parole period cannot be less than a year, and it may be continued through the maximum term of their sentence. In addition to that, our state prison will begin the work not only of supervising the paroled man, but of taking those who are more hopeful among the men finally discharged, and securing for them places of employment. We have done nothing yet for finding employment for the jail prisoner and the workhouse prisoner.

MR. HALSTED SMITH.— We have a chaingang in Floyd county, of which Rome is the county seat. It is composed at present of sixty-two misdemeanor convicts, that is, persons who are sentenced for terms of one year or less. These convicts are

distinguished from the state penitentiary convicts by their short terms, and by the fact that the sentence can always be, in the discretion of the judge, and generally is, an alternative sentence in the event of a failure to pay a fine. Of the sixty-two now on hand, sixty are from Floyd county, and two from another county which does not work a chaingang. In the summer they are at night housed in temporary shelters of tents or framed portable house and worked on the public roads at greater or less distances from the county seat. In the winter they are housed at Rome in permanent frame houses which are heated by stoves, and are worked when the weather permits upon the streets of Rome or upon the roads immediately adjacent thereto. This chaingang was organized in 1881, and the result has been to build something over one hundred miles of macadam roads in the county, besides assisting in the building of piers and approaches to bridges. The cost has been about ten thousand dollars per year. The men and women are kept in separate apartments; and the work of the women is confined to cooking, sewing, washing and cleaning up the camps. We have a county farm where the poor and infirm may find a permanent home. It is provided with comfortable dwellings. The inmates, who now number ten females and thirteen males, are clothed and fed and cared for at the public expense. The farm produces fresh vegetables and meats and some fruit for the consumption of the inmates. The location is on a public pike road about three miles from Rome, and has healthful surroundings. The city has a relief fund for the purpose of relieving temporary distress; it is furnished to those who may be found to be in need, or who may apply for aid. The sum rarely exceeds three hundred dollars per annum.

The increase of manufacturies in and around Rome has decreased the number dependent upon the public in this community. There are cotton mills, iron foundries, scale works, furniture factories, tanneries and many others to which the able-bodied may be turned for work when more than temporary aid is asked. The great state charity here is the school for the deaf and dumb at Cave Spring. An able superintendent, Prof. W. O. Connor, presides over an institution which has enrolled one hundred and fifty-nine white pupils, and thirty-eight negroes. The schools for the two races are distinct, except as to superintendence. As to education, the school is what is known as a combined system school; that is, any method is used which will best serve the purpose of the education of the deaf. Printing, shoemaking, carpentering, painting, blacksmithing, gardening and wood-carving are taught the boys; but only plain sewing to the girls.

The general private charities are carried on by the church societies. From the Tower Hill, upon which our white public schools stand, may be seen twenty-two churches, thirteen white and nine colored, representing six denominations. Each church has an aid society, and nearly every society has a visiting committee to aid the sick, assist those who are seeking work to obtain it, and perform such other acts as kindness prompts and necessity calls for. In line with the churches and in their special ranks, two masonic lodges carry on their work.

There are here also other charities, special in their work, and tending to fit the recipients for the duties and responsibilities of life. Beginning with the little children, a free kindergarten school for the poorer classes is taught by Miss Martha C. Harris. This institution is under the management of some of the ladies of the city, and provided for by voluntary donations. Thirty small children are taught during a portion of the day. Twelve larger girls, and twelve larger boys are taught in the evening. These latter work in the day and at night are taught. The girls are taught to read and write and sew. The boys are taught the same studies and do wood-carving and work of like character. The cheerful, energetic example of the teacher has brought order out of chaos, tidiness out of untidiness, and a greater pride and care on the part of the parents towards their children. An application for a charter is now pending in order that its usefulness may be perpetuated and enlarged.

The Boys' Industrial School was started in 1897 by Miss Martha Berry, who devoted her own time, energy and means to the founding of an institution for the benefit of the poor white boys of the county. It is now a chartered institution, owning eighty-three acres of land, upon which is a fifteen-room dormitory, and a four-room school house. Board and tuition cost five dollars per month, except where those who are worthy are without means to pay this small sum; then they are allowed to work for their board and tuition. There are now fifty-four scholars enrolled, of whom ten are working their way. The students do all the housework, washing, cooking and farm work. Private subscription makes up the deficit in expenses. The school stands for Christian character and industry. It is undenominational, but the Bible is taught as a part of the curriculum.

The Model School in Waters District has seventy scholars, boys and girls. The boys are taught mechanical industries and farming. The girls are taught all matters pertaining to home, as well as such mechanical pursuits as each may desire to study. It is under the charge of the Woman's Club of Rome, and is kept

up by them, together with the public school fund of the county, which gives to the school what other public schools receive.

Such are our institutions. Much is done, and doubtless more can be done by organized effort; but the above facts show that the spirit of true charity is not a stranger to us.

THIRD SESSION.

Thursday Night, May 7.

The Conference was called to order in the auditorium of the First Baptist Church by the President at 8 P. M., after music by the choir of the First Methodist Church, Miss Clementine McGregor, Director. Prayer was offered by Rev. Theron Rice, D. D., pastor Central Presbyterian Church, Atlanta.

In order to suit the convenience of Mr. Beverly Warner of New Orleans, of the Kingsley House Association, the program as arranged was somewhat changed. Mr. Warner read a paper upon "Social Settlements." (Page 308.)

The subject for the evening "State Supervision and Administration of Charities and Correction" was taken up. In the absence of the chairman, Prof. Frank W. Blackmar of Lawrence, Kansas, Mr. Geo. S. Wilson, Secretary of the Board of Charities, Washington, D. C., of the same committee presided. Mr. Wilson stated that as the report of the committee was in print, it would not be read in full and that the evening would be devoted to discussion. Professor George F. Canfield, President of the State Charities Aid Association, New York, was asked to read an epitome of the report and to open the discussion.

DISCUSSION ON STATE SUPERVISION AND ADMINISTRATION OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTIONS.

Professor Geo. F. Canfield, New York.— (After reading the report of the commitee). According to this report you see that the question for discussion this evening is a very broad one and covers the whole subject of the relation of public authorities to charitable administration, whether that administration is conducted by the public authorities exclusively or whether it is conducted by private individuals. The primary question is what should be the relation of the public authorities to the public administration of charity or to what we call public charity. There have been and there still are in operation many different systems.

In the first place, there is the system of management by local boards of unpaid trustees without any central supervision. By supervision I mean any central authority having the power to visit and inspect, to see whether there is anything wrong going on and to report upon it. That is the first system, a system of local management by local boards without central inspection.

Another system is that of management by local boards with central supervision.

A third system is that of local management by unpaid boards with central supervision and central financial control.

A fourth system is management and financial control by a central authority.

Now there is a fifth possible system, one which has hitherto been very little considered and, in fact, has not yet, so far as I know, been put into operation anywhere. That would be a system of management and control by a central authority supplemented by central supervision.

In New York we had until recently, for the care of the insane as well as for the care of the other beneficiaries of the state charities, the third system, namely, that of local management by boards of unpaid trustees supplemented by central supervision and financial control. In the case of the insane, that central supervision and financial control was exercised by the Lunacy Commission, and in the case of the other dependents on charity, it was exercised by the State Board of Charities and the State Controller. The philanthropists of New York were emphatically in favor of that system and they are none the less so now. In fact they are rather more in favor of it to-day, since the system has been abolished than they were before, both because the results achieved under that system were satisfactory and because the arguments which were advanced in favor of abolishing it were completely answered.

In place of the system thus abolished, we have now, so far as the insane are concerned, the system of central control, control by the Lunacy Commission which, from a body having simply the power to visit and inspect, has been converted into a governing or regulating body.

It was urged in behalf of the change that there had been serious mismanagement under the system of local management and that serious evils had resulted. Some twenty-three cases of alleged mismanagement were pointed out. On investigation, however, it was found that of all those cases none were substantiated except one; twenty-two were founded on a misapprehension of facts. They were cases which occurred before the system which was abolished existed. The one case that was sub-

stantiated was that of alleged corrupt conduct on the part of one of the members of one of the local Boards of Managers and the simple solution of that trouble would have been the removal of that member from that Board. So far, therefore, as these cases were concerned, there was a complete answer to those who favored the abolishing of that system. But those who were in favor of it were not daunted. They were not daunted any more than the philosopher who having stated a theory said that, if the facts did not fit the theory it was so much the worse for the facts. They proceeded cheerfully and promptly and with disregard of facts to state certain academic theories upon which they based their opposition to that system. They said in the first place that it was not economical. It was proved that it was economical. In fact, under that nicely balanced system, which had been perfected in New York, — the management by local boards of managers supplemented by central supervision and central financial control, — we had achieved a great deal of economy. Indeed the management of the institutions for the insane had been reduced to such a point of economy that one of the first acts after the adoption of the new system, which was adopted ostensibly for economy, was to increase the amount of expenditure.

It was said further that a system of local management and central supervision and central control was a complicated one, that there was too much friction, friction between the central authorities and the local managers. Our answer to that was that friction is not always a bad thing. It means heat. Heat means light and light means illumination, and we thought that we were making progress under that system. Through conflict and comparison of ideas and conferences between local boards and the central authorities we were making steady progress.

Finally, it was said that the system was not business-like, that the whole tendency in the modern business world was in the direction of simplification, of consolidation, of combination, rather than in duplication of machinery. Our answer was that charity was not business; that charity was government. It involved broad questions of policy and what was good for business was not necessarily good for charity and what was good for some other governmental affairs was not necessarily good for charity. We pointed out that the great improvements that have been brought about in the administration of charity had come from the efforts of individuals. It was the sentiment of philanthropists that had improved our charitable administration and that had put to rout the horrible abuses which disgraced it in the last generation. It was the sentiment of philanthropists that demanded justice for the poor lunatic and rescued him from the

horrible surroundings of the almshouse. We pointed out that the system already established was one admirably devised for the purpose of utilizing the influence of these philanthropists and for quickening an interest in charitable work on the part of a large number of individuals and that it was a great advantage to the state and to the community that there should be as many private individuals as possible having an interest in this work and charged with its responsibilities. We also pointed out that the local boards of managers, being slowly changing bodies, no one Governor being able to appoint all of the members, were likely to be freer from bad political influences and therefore to retain the services of the best men.

Unquestionably the success of an institution rests on the character and intelligence of the superintendents and it seems to me that that system is the best which in the long run will secure to the state the services of the best sort of men for superintendents. We cannot emphasize the fact too strongly that we need for the management of these large institutions men of the first grade, not second class or third class men, but men of the first grade and to get those men you must select them entirely without regard to the claims of politics and give them large powers, and security of tenure. It is not essential even under the system of central control that the superintendent should be deprived of the powers which have been vested in him under the system of local management. But the natural tendency in connection with this system of central control is to limit and restrict the powers of the superintendent, and when you have degraded the superintendent you have taken the first step toward the undermining of the institutions.

Speaking for New York, I can say therefore to this Conference that its philanthropists are still in favor of the old system of local management. If New York, therefore, is ever cited as an example for the purpose of securing the system of central control in other states, tell them that the New York philanthropists are not in favor of it. If it be said that the other method is more simple, we say give us less simplicity and a little more adaptation to human needs; give us a little less officialism and more humantarianism; a little less economy and efficiency and a little more of the touch of human sympathy.

Judge G. S. Robinson, Board of Control, Iowa.— I am from a state in which centralized management of its penal and charitable institutions is in full operation, following the system of government by local boards. The new system has the approval of the people of the state.

The success of any system depends largely upon the personal element, and the end to be reached is the adoption of that system which will secure the most efficient administration of the charities and corrections of the state. Will that be accomplished best by local boards, by a system including advisory and local boards combined, or by a central board of control acting without local boards?

Reference has been made to the system of Iowa, and it is asked what was the motive for adopting that system? A committee appointed by the General Assembly of the state investigated the fifteen state institutions and found that there was a great lack of uniformity in adminstration and a great lack of economy in maintenance. Smaller salaries were paid to officers in some institutions than were paid to officers performing similar work in other institutions. Supplies were procured at retail rates which should have been purchased at wholesale prices. In many instances friends of officers of the institutions were benefited by the unjust distribution of patronage. Some institutions were in bad condition, and there was a lack of efficient supervision although each institution had its own board of managers. These boards were usually composed of excellent men, of men of standing and influence, who were selected because of their political influence rather than for their ability to manage well the particular institution to which they were assigned. They were men of affairs, but engrossed in private matters and met together two or three times a year at the institutions of which they had control to examine accounts, act upon the recommendations of superintendents, have a good time and depart, seeing but little of the inside workings of the institution.

Will it remedy the lack of supervision which frequently exists under the separate or local board system to add to it an advisory board? In those states in which such boards exist their duties are largely performed through the secretaries and agents. The members of the boards have their own business affairs to manage and do not devote their entire time to the institutions under their care. That is a defect in the system although it is better than the system of local control without central supervision. But in my opinion the ideal system is the one which will have the constant care of intelligent men informed as to their duties and the needs of the institutions, who are in constant and sympathetic touch with them, and whose attention is not diverted to matters of personal concern.

Several states have adopted with modifications the Iowa system which may be regarded as the model of the class. It is not more difficult to keep a board of control of state institutions out

of politics than it is to keep any other boards non-partisan. It is true that if a board of control be subject to political influences and be clothed with power to act along political lines it would be a dangerous body, for its power would be far-reaching and it could exert a wide political influence.

Under the Iowa plan each member of the board of Control, consisting of three members, is appointed by the governor with the consent of two-thirds of the senate. He is not eligible to any other lucrative office in the state during the term for which he is appointed nor for one year thereafter. He cannot contribute money or other thing of value for any election purpose, nor can he influence any officer or employee of the state to adopt his political views or favor any particular person for office. The Board has no political power and cannot appoint any officer or employee of an institution except its head. Every other officer and employee is appointed by the chief executive of the institution, and the Board of Control is forbidden to exercise any influence in the making of such appointments. Hence the Board has practically no power to manipulate the offices, and it cannot use the appointing power to aid any scheme of others. The same rules apply to every employee of each institution. Moreover it is a crime under the law for any person or campaign committee to solicit from any member of the Board of Control or any officer or employee money for political purposes. The result is that the institutions are thoroughly out of politics. No one thinks of asking political help from any person connected with any of them.

It is objected in the report now being discussed that under a board of control the humanitarian side of the work is lost sight of. That objection is not well founded. It is true the board is to a great extent a business body and it systematizes the business of all of the institutions and economizes in many ways, but not to turn money back into the state treasury; rather to improve the condition of the wards of the state. In addition to this work, which is largely routine and done by clerks, there is the investigation of the best methods of treating the insane, of managing prisoners, and of studying the work of other institutions. A great deal of attention is paid by the Board of Control to that work. The Board is in constant touch with the institutions. It has their betterment and the best management for them constantly in mind. In these matters it has an advantage over the advisory board.

Few arguments can be made in behalf of the advisory board which may not as well be made in behalf of the board of control where it is properly constituted and is free from political

influence. I do not know the conditions in New York, but I do know those which exist in Iowa and although it is true that our system may not be good for all states, that a system may have to be modified in its application in different states, the system of a central board of control wherever applicable has proved to be the most thorough and best system which has been tried. In some of the more populous states one board could not give proper attention to all of the institutions as it can in the less populous states, but there may be divisions of the work. There could be a board for the penal institutions, one for hospitals and another for other institutions according to the peculiar conditions of the state.

The Board of Control system has been in effect in Iowa for five years. It met with bitter opposition at first from all the heads of institutions for they regarded their positions as in danger. They had been dictators in their several institutions. But after the experiment was tried these officers found it relieved them from routine work to such an extent and was so helpful in other ways that they were led to approve the system and to speak loudly in favor of it.

GEN. R. BRINKERHOFF.— I have given attention to this subject for a great many years and I am familiar with the operations of the different systems. I have inspected the institutions of all the states in the United States, except one (South Dakota), and I understand how the different institutions are carried on. I agree in the main with the gentleman from New York. I do not agree with the gentleman from Iowa. Ohio has had a state board of charities since 1867, with an intermission of four years. For twenty-five years I have been on that board. Several other states have taken our law and have it in operation and I will refer you to them for results. For a few years our board was composed of five men appointed by the governor. Afterwards with a view to take the whole business out of politics the constitution of the board was changed, so that it is now composed of six men, not more than three of whom can belong to the same party. The governor is a member ex-officio, president, but he rarely meets with us. He refers subjects to us and looks upon us as his right hand. All complaints in regard to the different institutions are referred to us and we report upon them so that he can act. We have no power. They offered to give us power and we declined to have it. We believe that we should have no power except the power of public opinion. When there has been a complaint and we make an inspection and report the public accepts it. There has never been a charge of whitewashing. The governor

approving our report has full power to make any changes necessary. The theory of our board is that it should be purely a board with advisory power, a board for investigation. The gentleman from Iowa says the old boards there met three or four times a year, visited a few institutions and had a good time. That is not the way they do in Ohio. The board makes it its business to know all about the state institutions. We study the subjects involved. We have traveled widely. For years the majority of our board have attended the National Conference of Charities from beginning to end. I have visited the institutions in Canada and Mexico and in Europe as well as in this country. Other members have done the same. We know our own institutions and we know our local conditions. We make it our business to keep abreast of the experiences and thought of the world, and to keep our institutions advised as to any progress found. Boards of control, responsible for the details of management and supplies, in the nature of things, have not sufficient time for this larger work. To criticise an institution is to criticise themselves, which we may be sure they never will do.

When local boards are abolished, as they are in Iowa, of course, a board of control is a necessity, but in all such cases its entire work should be under the close supervision and inspection of a non-partisan, unpaid, and unbiased board of charities and correction.

In my judgment, however, the abolition of local boards of unpaid trustees is a great mistake. Local boards of trustees in our state, in all of our benevolent institutions, are composed of men of as high character, and business ability, as any board of control ever appointed. With attention centered upon one institution they know far more about it than is possible with any board of control with energies diluted in the vain attempt to properly care for all the institutions of a great state like Ohio or Iowa. It is like a hen attempting to hatch a whole bushel of eggs, and the results cannot be otherwise than similar. In Ohio we also have in every county a board of county visitors, three men and three women who have the inspection of all the local institutions supported by local money and they report to us. They are the best men and women. They receive no pay. We receive no pay. There has never been a man on the board that you could hire for money. We do not believe that a man should be there for money. He should be there for the love of God and humanity. The governor can always get such men. I would not accept a salary. I give one-third of my time to the work of the Board during the year. We have also a state conference of charities

and correction which meets every year and has a meeting for three or four days with papers and discussions and we get three or four hundred people from different parts of the state and sometimes bring men from abroad and you will find the reports of those conferences on many topics equal to the reports of the National Conference of Charities and Correction.

Mr. L. C. Storrs, Secretary of the State Board of Corrections and Charities, Michigan.— In Michigan we believe in a state advisory board: that the work of such a board is of greater benefit, in all directions, than that of a central board of control. We have tried both. In 1891 the legislature thought it wise to do away with the boards of the several institutions and place them under the control of a central board. Two central boards of control were provided for, one for prisons and reformatories and the other for institutions for dependents and defectives. In 1893 the legislature was very glad to do away with the central boards and re-establish the system of boards of control for each institution. The following instance will illustrate the result of the central board of control system. After visiting the state Public School at one time as the Board of Corrections and Charities was about to leave the institution, a member of the central board of control was met, who asked what I thought about a central board of control. I replied evasively "That is all right ,isn't it?" "I should say not," he answered. "I used to be on the board of control for the school for the blind and I knew what they needed there and I was interested in the work. Now I am on the central board and I don't know a ——— thing about any of the institutions and care less."

So in Michigan we have gone back to our small boards of control for each of the various institutions that uniformity may be secured in the management. The law requires that in the case of the five asylums the boards shall twice a year hold a joint meeting for consultation and to establish the rate of maintenance which shall be the same in each asylum. That rate is adjusted according to the conditions prevailing in the market. This rate has varied from time to time, reaching as low as 42 cts. a day, per capita, and as high as 48 cts. The prison boards are required also to hold joint sessions. Twice a year they have a joint meeting to talk over matters pertaining to prisons, and particularly the matter of prison labor. The Michigan law for the employment of its convicts is most business-like and elastic. It provides that the boards in whose charge the prisons are placed, shall determine what it shall be, and may be changed at the meeting of the joint boards every six months, if conditions require a change.

The Chair asked Mr. Folks to speak and to consider the question whether the duties of a board of supervision and of a board of control could be combined with advantage.

Mr. Homer Folks said in substance that the fundamental necessity seemed to him to keep clearly in mind the fact that supervision and administration are wholly different functions, requiring different methods, and looking to different ends. The word "supervision" he thought somewhat ambiguous, but the things in the mind of those who use the term are inspection, suggestion, report, and advice, with absolutely no power of regulation, administration, or control. With this understanding of the term it seemed to him practically certain that a small, salaried board of control would never be given power of supervision over municipal, county, town, and private charities, and that such supervision was the most important work of a state board of charities. The choice between a state board of charities and a state board of control is therefore not a choice between two sorts of supervision, but between supervision and *no* supervision. Historically he knew of no board of control which had possessed the power of supervision over local and private charities. For this function of supervision he deemed the larger, unpaid, slowly changing, non-partisan, representative state board of charities a necessity. Only such a board could command that general confidence which could give value to its findings.

As to the question of administration of state institutions, Mr. Folks said that there were several different possibilities. First of these is the plan of a separate board of trustees for each institution. Second, is the plan of a central board of control, small and salaried, and without board of trustees. Third, is the plan of having boards of trustees, but with financial control, and in some cases other powers, vested in a small central board or in one official.

Mr. E. P. Bicknell.— The people of any state want an unpaid disinterested body between the tax-payers and the officials who are running the institutions. There must be some body with power to go in and do the looking after things for the people. There are millions of us. We can not visit our institutions any day or week and we can not leave them entirely to those who run them, people who have a policy, people who purchase millions of dollars worth of stuff; people who may pay too much or buy things not first class and who, like the rest of us, hesitate about acknowledging their error when they have made it. We want some one without policy, or mistake, to shrink from, who is perfectly disinterested, with broad general views of the work that

is being done, to represent the people. Then we want this same body to protect the institution from unjust attack. The ones who are running the institutions, buying the stuff, hiring the superintendents, cannot protect the institutions if they are being attacked. There is the kernel of the whole business. Whether you have local boards, or boards which govern the institutions of like character, or a single state board of control like Iowa, you need disinterested supervision just the same.

MRS. ALICE N. LINCOLN, Boston.— Mr. Bicknell has defined the position of unpaid boards, and I want to thank him for doing so; because the unpaid board is often misunderstood. I myself feel strongly that we represent *the people;* those who want to help the inmates of institutions, and who want to know that they are well cared for, and that public money is made to go as far as it can wisely and well. We know that we represent the people, but I think it is seldom so clearly stated as Mr. Bicknell has put it.

In regard to the general question, it seems to me that the gentleman from Iowa has summed it up when he says that if the Board of Control *is properly constituted,* it may do its work all right. So it may, but it is putting the power into the hands of a few men who *may not* be properly constituted, and that is the risk. I felt last year when I heard one of the members of the board of control of Iowa speak on this subject, that if every man were as honest and as good, and as capable as he, that the work would be well done, but we can not be sure that it will be. With the slowly changing members of the State Board of Charities there is likely to be more protection for public interests. I am glad that the different speakers have said that *humanity* is one of the great things to be considered in our work. The business side is not the only side, or the side that should be most before us, and it is very gratifying to me that the other side should be brought forward; a side which is sometimes ridiculed, as though we should not consider humanity in our work!

MR. TIMOTHY NICHOLSON, Indiana.— From what knowledge I have of these boards of control no state has so good a board of control both in its personnel and also in the law itself, as Iowa, but I would like to ask the gentleman who represents Iowa, and who has done it so well, if his board gets a little off the track who is there to supervise you?

JUDGE ROBINSON. At present there is no one. I should rather like some one to supervise us in case we should go wrong.

MR. A. W. CLARK, Superintendent of the Child Saving Institute, Omaha, Neb.— I think that in all the western states in some way we must provide for central authority in the manage-

ment of the state institutions, as Iowa has made provision. This central authority is needed on the business side of the state institutions. There is a felt need and a growing demand for this in the west and it was on this account, at least in part, that Minnesota made a change in her system and adopted the Board of Control.

I think there is a tendency in all the states adjoining Iowa and Minnesota to do likewise. As a member of the Nebraska State Board of Charities I am convinced that our state could save one hundred thousand dollars annually by adopting the system which is now being carried out by the Board of Control in Iowa.

I believe that our State Board of Charities might in some way direct this central authority so as to reach the desired results and at the same time still retain the position of an Advisory Board of State Charities.

One possible plan has seemed to me to combine the two functions in one board. It might be composed of nine members, three of them to have powers and functions and duties of a board of control, six of the members being advisory members. The three paid officials would give attention to the business side and make report to the board so that the six advisory members would serve as a check upon the paid officials.. It might be better to make provision by an act of the legislature that the State Board of Charities should appoint one or more commissioners of the state institutions to look after the business side of affairs and to make their report directly to the State Board of Charities. In this way all the desired results might be obtained without changing the character of the Advisory State Board of Charities.

I am seeking information on this subject and have been deeply interested in what the speakers from Indiana and Ohio have said concerning their local boards in the management of their institutions. Some of these local boards in Illinois and other states have not been satisfactory. One superintendent of an Illinois institution recently told me that one member of his local board was a farmer, living a considerable distance away, another was a man engaged in a small line of business in an adjoining town and that all three of them were practically without knowledge of the great problems involved in the management of his institution.

MR. A. J. HUTTON, Superintendent Industrial School for Boys, Wisconsin.— We have a Board of Control in Wisconsin and at the head of it one of the grandest men, Judge Lyon, who was justice of our Supreme Court for twenty years. I cannot understand how five men appointed by the governor and confirmed by the senate cannot understand about institutions,

though they draw a salary, just as well as men who draw no salary. The management of the local institutions is put in the hands of the superintendents. As a superintendent I am unhampered by the meddling of the board. The management of the institution is entrusted to me. The thing to do is to get good men. It is not so much the form of government that insures efficiency as it is a good administration of the government. If you get good men into power, it makes little difference what form is followed. Institutions under state boards of control speak for themselves. They are managed, to say the least, quite as efficiently, and with as wise economy as are similar institutions under local boards or any other form of government.

JUDGE M. D. FOLLETT, Ohio.— Can a man four months old in experience grasp all these questions?

Is it true that you are more free from politics when your governor appoints you to one place rather than to another? No! not at all.

Can three or four or five men inspect and personally control all the institutions of the state? They cannot do it. We have in Ohio eighty-eight (88) counties, and three or four different institutions in each county.

In reference to the matter of different prices of expenses paid in different places, our officers meet and learn what are local prices in each of these places. Could three men buy for the whole state of Ohio? But even by so doing you could not save any one hundred thousand dollars ($100,000.00) a year, as has been claimed. Yet our Board of State Charities has helped to save in Ohio over $300,000.00 per year by ceasing to give outdoor relief from the county treasury by county officers; and in due time, by patient labor, we thus have obtained better results for the needy at greatly reduced prices and less imposition and fraud.

We all know Judge Lyon and how much he has done for his state. He is a very good man and a busy officer, but he does not have time to come down here to attend and engage in these discussions. Why? He does not see any good in them. He has little time for studying these questions. General Brinkerhoff says he has been studying like questions for twenty-five years as an individual and then as a member of the Ohio Board of State Charities; and I have been studying them since A. D. 1879. We must have a grasp of these important questions. They are not merely questions of economy, or of efficiency in neatness, but they are subjects of scientific study—study of matter, of mind and of morals — and include how best to prevent crime and to lead the erring and the criminal back to true manhood and to

good citizenship; and how best to restore the insane to sanity; and how best to protect society when all means and efforts are not fully successful.

The point is, that no board of control whose members can grasp these questions and can rightly solve them, can perform all that should be done — no such board can be and do the whole thing. You must go to somebody else and secure and use the best hearts, experience and ability of the best and purest of men and of women, or failure will result.

In Ohio, for economy, we send out to all the state and secure definite bids for supplies for the institutions. These bids are carefully examined by the officials before any one is accepted; and this plan has the approval of all honest men.

MR. SMITH, of Colorado.— I find that in the discussion this evening those who are on the side of the unpaid board belong to that class. In Colorado we have a paid board.

MR. A. O. CROZIER, Wilmington, Delaware.— There is no question that supervision by a state board of charities is a wise thing. The gentleman who defended the board of control also admitted that they need it and that there would be no objection to their being supervised by an unpaid board of charities. The possible solution of this might be to put the business management of all these institutions into the hands of one man who would make a business of it and pay him the same kind of salary that you would pay a man to manage your own business, ten thousand dollars if he is worth it, and let the state board supervise him as it does the institutions of the state.

G. S. ROBINSON, of Iowa.— Dr. Wines asked what we had gained by abolishing the local board and establishing a central board of control? We have now a board that gives its entire time to solving the problems of what should be done. It is not a board that gives a little time now and then or even one-third of its time, but all its time. As to supervision, I think there might be some. I do not object to it.

The committee on organization was announced as follows: Chairman, Alexander Johnson; Miss Mary Birtwell, Messrs. E. T. Devine, J. M. Glenn, M. Heymann, J. J. Jackson, L. C. Storrs.

Adjourned at 10:15 P. M.

SECTION MEETING.

STATE SUPERVISION AND ADMINISTRATION OF CHARITIES.

Friday A. M.

The section was called to order at 9:45 in the Carnegie Library Building. The general topic was "The Methods of Practical Administration." Professor Demarchus C. Brown, of Indiana; Hon. Rutherford H. Platt, of Ohio; Mr. George R. Canfield, of New York, and Mr. Michael Heymann, of New Orleans, took the main part of the discussion, which was later thrown open to the meeting.

THE STATE IN ITS RELATION TO PRIVATE CHARITIES.

THE CHAIR.— The general practice has been for the state to let private charities alone. We have generally acted on the theory that when a number of people got together and organized a private charity, whether incorporated or not, so long as they raised the funds necessary to carry on that organization without appealing to the state, county or municipality for public funds raised by taxation, the state had no particular concern, hence no particular right, to interfere with the management or supervision of such activities. In recent times, however, many thoughtful students of the subject have expressed the opinion that the state should have a very great concern with the activities of the so-called private charities, and the question of the state's relation to such charities has become very important. The discussion with relation to this subject will be opened by Mr. George F. Canfield, president of the New York State Charities Aid Association.

MR. CANFIELD.— We have two points to consider. First, what shall be the relation of the public authorities to private charities which do not receive state aid? Second, shall the public authorities, or shall the state, contribute any money for the support of private charities?

With reference to the first question it seems to me the true principle is this: A private charity is a public service. The managers of a private charity are trustees who are performing a public service and are performing a trust in the interest of those who cannot themselves see to it that the trust is properly performed. The state, therefore, ought to have a right to see to it that the trust is properly performed. I base the right of interference upon the part of the state not on the ground that the state has contrib-

uted money for the support of the private charity, and not on the ground that the private charity is conducted under the form of a corporation. The fact that the private charity is incorporated is entirely immaterial, so far as this is concerned. The incorporation confers insignificant advantages. People incorporate in order that they may receive, manage and appropriate money more conveniently, but recently in New York the system of English charitable uses has been re-established, and so there is no longer any necessity of carrying on great charitable enterprises under the form of corporations. Whether it is carried on by a corporation or by an individual we have the case of a trust, a very important trust, performed for persons too ignorant or too incompetent to look after themselves, and a trust in which the public is vitally interested. It seems to me then, that on this broad ground the state has the right of interference.

What sort of interference, what power of interference, should the state possess? It ought to be made very clear that the state should not undertake in any sense to *regulate* private charities. It should have simply the power of visitation and inspection. That power is ample and sufficient for all purposes. The mere fact that a private charity is subject to visitation and inspection by public authority is sufficient to prevent a great deal of evil.

I regret to say that in New York, although at one time, and in fact, for a long time, the State Board of Charities exercised the power to visit and inspect charitable institutions, that power has been taken away from it, so far as private charities are concerned which receive no state aid. This was the result not of any action by the legislature of our state, but of the unfortunate opinion rendered by the Court of Appeals. I want to quote briefly from that opinion to show the reason why this result was reached:

"The charity with which the state is concerned is something quite different. That consists in the distribution of relief or public aid, the fruit of taxation levied alike upon the willing and the unwilling. The right of visitation and regulation applies only to those institutions, public or private, through which the state fulfills this function. They alone are within the reason of the law, and, consequently, within its scope and operation. * * * What may be called governmental charity, or charity based upon public taxation and administered by a system of statute law, is a very different thing from the charity that moved the good Samaritan and prompted the widow's mite. The power of visitation and regulation applies to those institutions administering charity of the former kind in whole or in part, but not to those voluntarily engaged in some good work of the latter

character. They are left by the state to manage their own affairs in their own way, or, at all events, are not within the jurisdiction of the state board of charities. That jurisdiction can then be defined by the application of a very just and simple test. If the particular institution, whether public or private, receives public money for use or distribution as charity and not for some other reason or some other purpose, that institution is subject to visitation by the board, but this system of state supervision does not extend to the efforts of private benevolence. They may flow in various channels not subject to state regulation, since the government is in no way concerned with it."

The claim, you will notice, is put forward that the state is vitally interested in seeing that a trust with respect to money is properly discharged, but not interested in seeing that a trust with respect to human life and public welfare is properly discharged. As human lives are at least of as much importance to the state as dollars, if the right of inspection is justified with reference to the dollar, it should exist also for the protection of human life.

The second point is whether the state shall contribute to the support of private charities. Upon this question I think much can be said on both sides. As a general principle, I think we might all agree that it would be well if the field of charity were clearly divided between that which belongs to the public authorities and that which belongs to private philanthropy. We know that evils have resulted from the payment of public money to private charities, and that if a private charity constantly needs public money, that is an indication that it is trying to cover a field that it cannot properly cover. It would be well for this Conference to consider very carefully that question, as to the sub-division of the fields of activity for charitable effort. If we could have on the one side all the work done by private charities which can be well done and supported by them, and on the other hand the work which must be done by public authorities exclusively, that would eliminate many of the evils and many of the difficulties that surround this question.

Suppose we find that as a matter of fact private effort has undertaken too heavy a burden for private charity to bear, it seems a strong claim can be made for more support from the state. That is the case in New York where the care of children is largely in the hands of private institutions, and where they have so many children to care for, that they want more aid from the public treasury. There were evils connected with that, but so far as our state is concerned, the matter seems to have been satisfactorily adjusted by providing that public money shall continue to be given to those noble charities, but no financial aid shall be given,

except under regulations and rules established by the State Board of Charities.

Miss Mary Vida Clark. — We might be assisted in the solution of this problem if we looked somewhat deeper than is ordinarily our custom. The administration of our state institutions is not a question merely of policy, but of principle, and we must decide it in accordance with the principles which are at the foundation of our American government. The strongest argument against the system of administration through state boards of control is that such a system is not consistent with the principles of democracy. I was somewhat appalled last night when some one said that it did not matter what method of administration had been selected so long as we had good men! That is the strongest argument for a benevolent despotism, but it is not an argument that we Americans can accept. In the management of state charitable institutions the principles of both business and government are applicable. They must be managed both as a part of business and a part of government, but we have to decide whether the predominant feature is business or government. Of course, the objects and methods of business and government are unlike; business is concerned with the manipulation of property, the making or saving of expenditure; government is concerned with the welfare of the governed. So far as business is concerned the principles by which it is determined are those of absolutism. Each man wants to manage his own business in his own way. All the labor laws which have been made in this country are but an effort to modify the absolutism of business by the democracy of government. So also there has been a tendency to modify the democracy of government by the absolutism of business, to offset the disadvantages of democracy by the advantages of absolutism through giving certain officials such powers as will enable them to manage the public business with the absolutism of the business man managing his private business. A board of control has such powers, but if the institutions governed by such a board must be governed in accordance with the principles of a democratic government as well as in accordance with the principles of pure business, then a board of control is not consistently possible.

In the state of New York we have about 24,000 insane persons with about four thousand employees and 150 physicians to care for them. This population, approximating 28,000 at the present time and rapidly increasing, is under the domination of a State Commission in Lunacy, consisting of three men, a triumvirate which has almost absolute power over the destiny of these 28,000 persons. A medical superintendent can be removed from

office; transferred from one hospital to another; any of his powers may be taken away and delegated to another officer; the management of his hospital may be controlled to the smallest detail by these three men. I submit that that sort of government is not in accordance with our democratic principles. Its application in New York is discouraging the best men from entering the State Hospital service and this means the sacrifice of the best interests of the patients. When a large number of citizens must be deprived of their liberty and cannot enjoy the advantages of the system of American government under which the sane can live, there is no reason why we should go to the extreme of putting them under a system of absolutism so inconsistent with the democratic principles to which we avowedly adhere.

Messrs. Brackett, Nicholson, and Storrs added a few words and Mr. Homer Folks was asked to close the discussion, which he did in a few words.

FOURTH SESSION.

Friday, May 8, 1903.

The Conference was called to order by the President at 8 P. M. After music by the boys' choir of St. Luke's Episcopal Church, prayer was offered by Rt. Rev. C. K. Nelson, Bishop of Georgia. Mr. Michael Heymann, of New Orleans, vice-president of the Conference, was called to the chair. The subject for the evening was the report of the Committee on Juvenile Delinquents, including Children's Courts and the probation System. In the absence of the chairman of that committee, Mr. F. H. Nibecker, superintendent of the House of Refuge, Glen Mills, Pa., took charge of the discussion. The first paper was read by Judge Ben. B. Lindsey, of Colorado, on "Reformation of Juvenile Delinquents." (Page 206.)

An address was given by Mr. J. J. Kelso, Superintendent Department Neglected and Dependent Children, Toronto, on "'Reforming Children Without a Reformatory," illustrated by a stereopticon. (Page 230.)

Adjourned at 10:30 P. M.

SECTION ON JUVENILE DELINQUENTS.

Friday Morning, May 8th.

The section opened with Mr. Nibeker in the chair, who said that they would take up the consideration of the oversight of children before and after commitment.

Mr. W. A. Wheeler, Probation Officer of the Westboro School for Boys, Massachusetts. — My work deals with boys who have been committed to state reform schools by the courts. Boys come to the Lyman School, the State Reform School of Massachusetts, between the ages of seven and fifteen. If a boy is fourteen years and three hundred and sixty-four days old he may go to the Lyman School; but if one day is added to his age he cannot be admitted but must be sent to the Massachusetts Reformatory.

When they come to the school they are sifted. Boys under twelve, or at most, thirteen years of age, are put in a branch of the school seven miles distant from the main school. The school is on the cottage plan. There are in the main school eight different families, with about 275 or 300 boys in these families. There is a school also for the little boys at some distance. It is a family. It is presided over by a woman with a motherly heart, and by a man whose face shines with his love for boys. The boy is told that if he will behave himself and be a good boy in the Berlin Branch, as it is called, he need never go to the Reform School. If he proves unworthy he is sent to the main school.

The other boys are given to me. That is, when a boy has stayed in the school for a few months, and is thought to be fit to go into a family, his name is given to me. I see the boy, and find a family where he may be put at board and sent to school. He is tried there until he has shown whether he can stand alone in the community, and be well behaved like other boys. If he proves that he cannot do that, he is told that he cannot go back to the Berlin Branch again and disseminate the stories of his pranks here, but he must go to the main Reform School, and take the discipline of that school. This method has been employed about eight years. It is too short a time to tell with exactness how the plan works. Thus far, it seems about half the boys committed by the courts, even after they have had the probationary treatment and failed, under the age of thirteen, are treated successfully outside the institution after two or three months at the Berlin farm.

The stay of a boy in the main school at Westboro depends upon his behavior. When he gets into the school he has a certain amount of credits to make up. He can get out in a certain time if he behaves himself properly. Usually, a boy stays less than two years. I think fifteen months is the average. Then his case is considered by the trustees who have a meeting every month. The home of the boy has been investigated, and a report in writing has been made upon it, and this is presented at the meeting, together with any further information concerning the home of that particular boy. The trustees intend to give every possible advantage to the father and mother, and to look at matters just as leniently as possible, and to make allowances for all defects which would not be ruinous to the boy. A large proportion of the boys are recommended by the Department of Visitation to be allowed to go home. Then the work of looking after the boys begins. If a boy cannot go home, if he has no home, or if his home is unfit for him to go to, then we find a home for the boy, usually in the country.

We visit as often as we think necessary. We have about 900 boys on probation. I keep the accounts of the boys on cards; if the record is favorable, it goes on a white card; if it is bad, it goes upon a buff-colored card; and if it is very bad on a pink card. If you ask how many boys are doing well or badly, the trustees can throw out all these cards, and see at once. The problem system provides a normal place for the boy.

I saw as I came down here, as I was driving in the country, a man ploughing with two mules and two horses, but one horse was hitched up with one mule and the other horse with the other one, and I thought it was very curious and wanted to take a picture of it, but the driver said to me: "These mules are training; they are not old mules, and that man knows that if he hitches two young mules together, they won't do anything; but he hitches the old horse with a young mule, and the old horse will train the mule." I did not take the picture; it was all right.

A man in New York took a little Russian boy whose father was in this country and in jail, and whose mother with twelve other children were in Russia. This little boy got into trouble in Massachusetts and was sent to the Berlin Annex of the school, and by me placed in Vermont with a farmer. I visited him there after he had been there six months. This is what the man said, an old Vermont Yankee who never heard the word psychology: "Somebody has been fooling with Sammy. You never saw such a fellow as Sammy was when I got him. It put me in mind of a pair of steers I bought on the mountain. I took them down and undertook to get a load of wood with them. I had not

more than got to the back of my sled than one of the steers saw me and started, and they broke my sled all to pieces, but I went down after them and I put them into the barn, and gave them hay, and I went to work and fixed up my sled. I took them to the same place next day. I chained the team to a tree; the ox turned around again and saw me. They began to pull, but they could not get away. I went up to them and took a nub of corn, and gave it to the nigh ox, and another to the off ox, and you never saw such a surprised pair of steers. These steers did not know what kindness was. It was the same with Sammy; someone had been fooling with him. I have got him so that he does not hide things from me, so that he does not pick up a copper when he wants to go to the store; he comes and asks me. I'll make a man of Sammy yet."

Now that man will do more for that boy than all the work of a boys' institution could do for him in ten years. We have in connection with our boys, systematic letter writing. We began this year and wrote letters to all our boys, and received answers. You cannot tell in one year how it may turn out, but the results are encouraging.

We have special arrangements for our twenty-one-year-old boys. Their cards are put in a blue envelope. Our statistics prove that out of 113 boys who became twenty-one years old last year, 72 were doing well without exception. That means, doing well without question. Of the remainder, 20 — that is 18 per cent. — are doing not so well, but are honestly self-supporting. There were eight boys doing badly, and every one of them in penal institutions. There were twelve boys that we lost sight of.

QUESTION. — What sort of an agreement is made by the school before a boy is placed out?

ANSWER. — We have a blank form upon which the agreement is written; its nature depends upon the individual case. In ordinary cases, a boy who is placed with a farmer at the age of sixteen, is placed upon these general conditions: He is to be well clothed and cared for, and be a real member of the family in every respect; he is to be sent to the school in the winter if best. It is not always best. And when he is eighteen years of age, there is to be deposited for him with the Lyman School, and paid to him with interest when he is twenty-one years of age, the sum of fifty dollars. At the age of eighteen we allow our boys to make their own contracts, subject to our supervision.

QUESTION. — You use the expression, "If it is best," about going to school; please explain.

ANSWER. — There are boys up to the age of sixteen, who have had a good common school education, who do well with the

family with whom they are placed, and yet it will be risky to place them in a school with other boys younger; they might be unruly. The boy comes out of the school at almost all ages.

QUESTION. — How are the boys visited, by a resident officer of the school or by people in towns where they are located?

ANSWER. — There are two men working for me in caring for these boys. We visit them as often as we think necessary. We hear from them twice a year by letter, and we also have arranged in some parts of the state that kindly-hearted people should inform us.

QUESTION. — Does your contract provide that the boys shall remain with the people until they are twenty-one?

ANSWER. — It does not. They make their own terms after eighteen, and handle their own money from that time forward.

QUESTION. — You say the boys report to you by letter; do you get any other reports? I find that the reports the boys make of their own conduct are not always true.

ANSWER. — In addition, we make our own visits. There are two field agents besides myself. I also visit. The agents and myself meet every Monday, and compare notes and look over the ground.

THE CHAIRMAN. — For the information of many who are not familiar with the practice of these institutions, I will say that this system, or some modification of it, is practically carried out with every institution of standing. With us, the letter must also be signed by the care-taker. So that we sometimes get letters from boys that they would not write, if some father or mother or care-taker was not going to read it and sign it. It struck me that it might appear to some of you that the compensation of these boys is rather small. That matter depends largely upon the conditions in the district in which they are placed. In New Jersey and Eastern Pennsylvania, where the demand for work is out of proportion to the supply, very large returns are received from the boys. We require semi-annual payment. At present, they receive more than fifty dollars for a single year for their services. The condition is always that the boys shall have the regular country term of school the same as anyone living in the country.

MRS. O. L. AMIGH, Geneva, Ills. — I have been superintendent of a Girls' School, now called the State Training School of Illinois, for over eight years, and early in my life, I had charge of a boys' school. I know that it is harder work, and more vigilant work to take care of girls than of boys. There seems to be a peculiarity of temperament about the girls. We get girls of every nation under the sun, and every age between ten and eigh-

teen; but the judges out our way have a fashion, if they want to get a girl into the Geneva school, if she is under ten, of putting the age up to ten, and if she is over eighteen, they put it down to eighteen. We have a good many defective girls. There is one class that always appeals to me, that is the girl whom the ordinary citizen would not call feeble-minded, but who really is feeble-minded. She is capable of being taught to work, and of reaching a certain grade in school, and to the ordinary observer, she might appear to be fit to go out safely into the world and earn her own living, but this is not true. I am beginning to feel that I am becoming a crank on this subject, in insisting that every state should have some institution, or some place where the girls of this class should be placed under supervisory care, at least during the child bearing age.

Then we have a great many really bright, talented girls, who have never had a chance to know anything before they came to us. They become some of our best and smartest workers. It requires a great deal of patience to have them unlearn what they have learned, because they have learned the life of the street, they have learned that to get money is the great object in life. They have been taught this by their parents. I could not help noticing how much stress Mr. Wheeler laid upon the boys going back home; with us, it would be the ruin of nine-tenths of our girls if we were obliged ever to let them go back to their parents. People ask sometimes: "How many of your girls are orphans?" And I am wicked enough to say, not so many as I wish were. Because the moment they go out from under our care, and go back to their parents, they seem to fall back in the same old tracks. Our conditions may be different from what they are in some places. We are very near Chicago.

In speaking of tramps, I noticed that they left out the tramp woman and girl altogether. From my childhood up, I have seen tramp women and girls, and they are the greatest menace to the community of any class of people who tramp. They may not be quite as numerous as men and boys, but it does not take so many of them to do a great deal of harm. They are so easily led, they have so little will power that they become the victims of designing persons, the very moment they are out from under our care.

When Judge Lindsay was talking yesterday, he spoke about the messenger service, and about the boys being under such bad influences, being sent to saloons and all kinds of places. Now, what do you think of a city whose messenger boys go on a strike, and then they put girls in their places, and send them to the same places where the boys were sent? The consequence is that I have a large number of these messenger girls with me, and some

of them said: "I never thought of harm until I went into that messenger service." There ought to be a law in every place guiding and guarding the girls. The boys have been looked after generation after generation, before it was thought worth while to pay attention to girls. Many states have been long in coming to understand the question, and Illinois among them; but it will take several generations to make the needed improvement in looking after girls.

As for the supervision of the girls, we have an excellent school. Our girls are admitted between the ages of ten and eighteen, and are under our care until twenty-one. We have a regular training school; our girls are trained in all departments of domestic work. We then place them out in families. We are very particular about the families. We have a lady who visits the family before the girl is placed out. In almost all the families they have telephones, and we can have telephonic connection with them at any hour of the day. But we prefer to have them placed where we can visit them easily. Fifty out of 102 of our girls who are out, are where they could reach us inside of half an hour, either by team or with the cars. We want to encourage them to come to us with all their troubles. We have a system of report. We furnish a blank report to the employer who is required to send a record every month; the girls write to us every two weeks. Their wages are paid to us, except a small sum for spending money. We keep it for the girl until she comes of age, clothing her out of that money. We try to encourage her to become saving. Some of the girls who have never had a decent dress until they came to the State Home would spend all they have if allowed to do so on ribbons and nonsense.

I am in close touch with the girls myself, being able to call every girl by name as fast as I meet them in the building. Our place is divided into eight families, and they are graded not so much according to age as to behavior and previous conditions. Sometimes a girl reaches a pretty high grade, and then she fails, and we have to put her back and let her try again. Our girls are taught music, both vocal and instrumental, those who have talent in that direction, and also drawing is taught to those who have a talent in that direction. We have a dressmaking department. We never have taught typewriting and stenography. I find that in our community you can get about a dozen girls who want to use a typewriter to one that wants to use a scrubbing brush. It seems to me that if you can get girls to understand that to be a home-keeper is about the best thing that can come into the life of a woman, this is about the best education they can have at the present time. My Yankee mother never thought that

her girls were too good to do anything that could be done in the house. Each of the families has a separate dining room. Some girls who are vicious, we are obliged to isolate altogether. They send us girls who are full of opium and cigars and beer and whisky, and such a girl has to be kept by herself.

Mr. George R. Brown, New York.— My belief is that in all our institutions, we fail to consider the previous condition of the child coming to us, and the causes that have led up to its being committed to our institutions. I am glad to hear Mrs. Amigh say that the girls are much more troublesome than the boys. I have found that so in my experience, and I have thought that there should be institutions into which children should go after leaving our primary institutions, where they could be looked after until they are married, or beyond the child bearing period.

E. E. York, of Plainfield, Superintendent Indiana School for boys, Indiana.— We are making progress in Indiana. The general assembly of our state passed a juvenile court law. That law prevents boys under fourteen years of age being placed in jails with other confirmed prisoners. We employ a probation officer to visit and investigate homes. We have over eight hundred boys out on parole from our institution, and with this one agent, we are not able to give them all supervision, for since last July, he has visited nearly two hundred boys. I have also been able within the last year, to place out a number of boys at twelve dollars a month. I am in favor of giving a boy an early parole if possible, and placing him in some good home.

Question. What makes a boy eligible for parole?

Answer. A boy must gain the requisite number of marks. He can get them at the expiration of one year. If he does not do this, he cannot be paroled.

Mrs. M. P. Falconer, of Chicago.— We are very proud of that work at Geneva. I must plead guilty to being one of those persons who stretch the law to get a girl in there. I feel that for a depraved girl, I am doing the best possible thing for her when I send her to Mrs. Amigh. The point I want to bring out is that a year ago we changed our law in regard to that institution, so that the girl would have supervision until she is twenty-one. Most of the girls come into their trouble between the ages of fourteen, sixteen and seventeen. If the girl needs supervision at all, she needs it until she is twenty-one. What can Mrs. Amigh do with a girl who is sent there at seventeen who knows that she will come out at eighteen? but that girl is going to have supervision until she is twenty-one, and she may be brought back to that school at any time.

MRS. W. G. FAIRBANKS, of Connecticut.— We classify them when they come into our school. We have the younger children from eight to twelve in one building. We have a disciplinary home, where we give the girls less privileges for a certain time. Then at the other end of the ground, we have an "Honor Home." The girl who enters here remains until a certain time. Four-fifths of our girls return to their homes. We have found this to be an excellent plan, not to break up the family. The other one-fifth have no homes and no parents, and those we place in families. My husband has charge of the school, and I am assistant superintendent, and also the visiting agent. I place them in their homes, and also visit the homes twice a year, but in special cases, every month.

Question. How much real liberty is it possible for girls to have under your open system?

Answer. We have no physical restraints at all. The homes are all open. Our grounds have a California privet hedge about them. We have a graded system of schools, and we do not consider a girl eligible for a home until she is in the sixth or seventh, the eighth or ninth grade in the day school. Our girls do not attend school after they leave us. We never send a girl out for her board and clothing. They always get wages, not less than six dollars, and there are those who get twelve dollars a month. Every one goes out well supplied with clothing, and with nothing to buy for three or four months. After that, her wages, once a quarter, all that she can save from what she spends for necessary articles, is sent to the school. A bank book is taken out for each girl, and when she becomes twenty-one years of age, this money is paid over to her, and she gives a receipt for the amount. In many cases, they leave it in the school after they are of age. We keep in touch with our girls after they are of age. Many of them come to us on special holidays, to enjoy them with the girls of the school.

Question. How do you prevent their running away?

Answer. We have very little running away. We do nothing to prevent it, but we have an electric attachment to each of the doors in our homes. And we have an annunciator. No girl can go out at night, and talk to any other girl without ringing this bell. Each child has a room by herself. On the grounds they are under the supervision of some officer.

Question. What is the nature of the discipline in the disciplinary home?

Answer. The discipline is by cutting off privileges. If a girl does not do well, she goes to her room. We have in our attics, not in our cellars, a "reflecting room." It has a large sky-light,

and a transom over the door. The girls are placed by themselves in this room. We never use corporal punishment. We make no difference in their meals; we do not cut off anything; we give them desserts and all.

Question. Can their parents come to see them?

Answer. At any time. We have 275 children in the school, about 100 out under twenty-one years of age.

Question. Do you ever allow your girls to go out to any public entertainments?

Answer. Occasionally; but not often. We never take them out to the city churches. We have a chapel of our own, and the pastors of the city come to us.

Question. I should like to have Mrs. Amigh tell us about *her* "reflection room."

MRS. AMIGH.— We have a very different class of girls to deal with. We have girls sent there with murder in their hearts, and those who have tried to poison families, and usually we find that those girls are more or less addicted to strong drink, and things of that kind, that make them unmanageable at times. I did not want to use any sort of restraint which would be painful, and at the same time, I wanted a place in which they would stay when they were put, so I invented a special chair, in which they can sit as comfortably as I can in this chair, but they have to sit there; they cannot injure themselves or anyone else. We never put a girl on short rations, or on bread and water. We treat them in every way just as though they were our own children.

MRS. E. L. SIMONDS, of Louisiana.— In Louisiana, an institution has been established by Mrs. Francis Joseph, a colored woman, the only institution I know of that kind. It takes boys and girls that are committed to her by the magistrates of the city. The boys are taught to be hostlers and gardeners and milkers and farmers, and the girls are taught needle work and housework. She is making a success of that system without assistance from city or state, but only by funds which she has collected by lecturing and by collecting subscriptions. It is notable, I think, that in the south here, the one institution that is so successful should have been founded and conducted by a colored woman. That is only for colored children.

A GEORGIAN.— There are six or eight orphan homes in the state of Georgia, and almost every kind of an institution.

MR. SIMONDS.— There are many charitable institutions throughout the south, but this is an institution which takes the criminal classes sentenced by the court, and is run by this woman out of her own funds.

FIFTH SESSION.

Saturday A. M., May 9, 1903.

The Conference was called to order at 9:30 A. M. by the President. Prayer was offered by Rev. C. W. Byrd, D. D.

The following resolution was offered by Miss M. E. Richmond of Philadelphia and referred to the Committee on Resolutions.

At a Conference called by the New York Charity Organization Society on April 29th, 1903, to consider the subject of family desertions, the undersigned were appointed a committee to draft and present to this National Conference a resolution memorializing the governors of the several states on the extradition of fugitive deserters. In accordance with these instructions, the following resolution is submitted:—

WHEREAS: The desertion of wife and children by the legal head of the family with the deliberate purpose of evading their support has become a serious evil in the United States, entailing not only a great burden upon public and private relief funds, but causing untold suffering to sick women and neglected children, and seriously impairing public health and morals.

WHEREAS: Detailed investigations in several states have shown that, of all families under the care of private charitable associations, no less than one in ten owe their destitution to this cause; and that the laws in twenty states for the punishment of desertion of a family in destitute circumstances are without effectual sanction, because deserters know that they have only to step over the state line to secure immunity.

WHEREAS, The National Conference of Charities and Correction believes that the application of extradition to this class of family deserters will prove the most effective remedy and deterrent.

THEREFORE BE IT RESOLVED: That the N. C. of C. & C. petition the Governors of the different states of the United States to co-operate in checking this growing evil by exercising their power of extradition (technically known as interstate rendition) by issuing requests for the return of fugitive deserters whose families are dependent as well as by honoring requisitions from other states.

(Signed) MARY E. RICHMOND,
WM. H. ALLEN,
PAUL U. KELLOG.
Committee.

Dr. C. R. Henderson of Chicago made the following report which was adopted and the committee continued.

REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON WORKINGMEN'S INSURANCE IN RELATION TO CHARITY AND CORRECTION.

At the District meeting of the National Conference of Charities and Correction in 1902, the Executive Committee took the following action, (which was approved by the Conference):

"The Executive Committee recommend to the National Conference of Charities and Correction, without committing the Conference to any particular system in advance of investigation, to provide for the appointment of a Commission of seven persons to consider plans of so-called insurance for wage-earners in case of accident, sickness, invalidism, and old age, with special reference to their effects on dependence and crime, the Commission to be continued for at least three years before making its final report." (Proceedings of 1902, p. 377).

President Nicholson appointed the following members of this Commission:

Charles R. Henderson, Chairman; Frederick L. Hoffman, D. G. Smith, John Graham Brooks, Amos W. Butler, Frank A. Fetter, Edward T. Devine.

All of these gentlemen, upon request, consented to act.

The first step in the work of the Commission was the division of labor among the members, special consideration being given to their previous studies and experience. The chairman proposed the following provisional assignment of topics, and the appointments were accepted:

1. Mr. John Graham Brooks: "The recent forms and development of workingmen's insurance in Europe, especially in Germany; their financial principles and economic justification apart from any charitable motive." As Mr. Brooks has been for many years a student of this subject, and has published, under federal auspices, an important book in this field, we think ourselves very fortunate in having his generous co-operation.

2. Mr. F. L. Hoffman: "*Criticism* of government insurance on financial, actuarial and economic grounds; with a recommendation of the best non-governmental substitutes." Mr. Hoffman has had an extraordinary opportunity to observe the working of "Industrial Insurance"; is known to be a statistician of wide fame, and represents the voluntary and business aspect of the problem. His acceptance of the position insures thorough criticism of novel propositions.

3. Dr. E. T. Devine: "The *need* of some kind of provision for accident, sickness, invalidism and old age, as shown by charity records and administration experience." As an economist, administrator of metropolitan charity and as an author, Dr. Devine is prepared to exhibit the essential facts which force themselves on the attention of students and practical workers.

4. Professor Frank A. Fetter, Cornell University: "Statement, description and criticism of *American* schemes of *corporations* for meeting these needs." The eminent position of Prof. Fetter among economists and in a great center of science gives us assurance that this topic will be carefully, accurately and comprehensively treated. Many large corporations have already tried experiments which are encouraging and instructive; and we wish to know what the value of their contribution is toward the social need under consideration.

5. Rev. S. G. Smith, D. D.: "Effects of the various systems, public and private, on *national character,* especially on the character of the poor." All competent charity workers will naturally ask the question: what is the *moral* effect of the various methods of providing for the emergencies of life among wage-earners. As we have a wide range of facts for observation it would seem possible to secure some light from experience, and Dr. Smith has peculiar qualifications for this part of the investigation.

6. Mr. Amos W. Butler: "Uses and abuses of the federal and municipal pension systems, and deductions for our subject." This branch of the subject is committed to one who has excellent opportunity to observe the effects of pensions and to secure the facts from first hand sources, and who is a careful and judicious interpreter of statistics and public measures.

All intelligent citizens are aware that our federal and municipal governments have long since introduced the principle of pensions, and insurance. Soldiers and sailors who have served their country are provided for by the nation, not as a charity, but as an indemnity for service and loss of strength. The various commonwealths have adopted the principle and carried it further. Municipalities care for the sick and injured firemen and policemen, and for their widows and fatherless children. Municipal school systems and universities are rapidly introducing the system of retiring pensions, in order that the teachers may give their undivided attention and energy to the public service, without dread of calamity and penniless old age. The cause and effects of those systems are to be studied, and the study will cast some light on the larger question before us.

7. The chairman will aim to keep in touch with all the other members of the committee, see that the different contributions fit into each other, and present as his own part a study of the German charity literature as to the influence of government insurance in the country where it has been most successfully developed.

It will be evident to the National Conference that this Commission has before it a long and difficult task. The subject is one which is agitating the minds of statesmen in all parts of the civilized world. Recently it has become a subject for practical politics in England, and the issue cannot long be neglected in our own country.

The members of this Commission do not hope to settle the question, but they do confidently expect, in their final report, to state the problem clearly, and to present with scientific accuracy and fairness all the essential facts which are necessary for an intelligent discussion.

Under the terms of their appointment the Commission herewith reports progress and requests the Conference to continue them and wait with patience the results of their labors. The Commission earnestly requests members of the National Conference to call to their attention any facts or arguments which may throw light on the problem.

Respectfully submitted,

C. R. HENDERSON, *Chairman.*

The chairman of the committee on Time and Place, Mr. A. W. Butler, reported as follows:

The Committee on Time and Place organized by selection of Mr. Amos W. Butler of Indiana as chairman and Mr. H. Wirt Steele of Washington, as secretary. A meeting to hear invitations from cities was called for Thursday morning, at which time Portland, Me., Portland, Oregon, St. Louis, Cedar Rapids, Iowa, and Cleveland, Ohio, each presented cordial invitations to the Conference of 1904. A vote by roll-call, thirty-four states and territories being represented, resulted in a vote for Portland, Me., which was then made unanimous and Portland, Me. was declared the choice of the committee. The time suggested to be the second or third week in June, to be fixed by the Executive Committee.

On motion the report was unanimously adopted, together with an expression of thanks to all the cities sending invitations to the Conference.

Mrs. Alice N. Lincoln of Boston suggested that there should be some change in the methods of presenting papers; that a paper should not be considered the report of a committee unless the committee met and talked it over and adopted it. That is impossible on account of geographical separation. Reports might be sent to each one, but a discussion of the subject might lead one to change his mind. Mrs. Lincoln then moved that this subject should be referred to the Committee on Organization with the request that it should consider whether the reports of committees as such should be omitted.

Mr. Hill seconded the motion, saying that he did not believe any one person should arrogate to himself the entire function of the committee of which he happens to be chairman. A report of a committee should be the crystalized sentiment of the whole committee upon that particular subject, or if there is dissent there should be some way of expressing that.

It was then voted to refer the whole subject to the Committee on Organization.

The subject for the morning was the Report of the Committee on Colonies for the Segregation of Defectives, Mr. Alex. Johnson, Superintendent Institution for Feeble-minded, Indiana, chairman.

MR. JOHNSON.— I am happy to say that I have not a unanimous report from my committee. As soon as I knew that I was appointed I wrote to each member of my committee for suggestions. I received suggestions from all save one. I did my best to embody those suggestions in my report and I then sent it to each of the committee for signature. All the committee but one signed the report, although on one point there was a slight feeling of dissent in the minds of several members. One member has given me a minority report which I shall have the pleasure of reading. I asked the members to give me any criticisms or to send me minority reports. I think it is a great mistake to have unanimous reports, for this Conference does not decide anything. We come together to confer about things.

Mr. Johnson then read his report. (Page 245).

The minority report was then read. (Page 253). The discussion was opened by Judge Robinson of Iowa.

DISCUSSION ON COLONIES FOR THE FEEBLE-MINDED.

JUDGE ROBINSON, Iowa.— Statistics admonish us that scientific living is not keeping pace with degeneracy. Reports show that degenerates are steadily increasing in number. This has been marked during the last forty years. It may be true that some of this increase is apparent rather than real; that it is due to better classification and more thorough knowledge and in criminal matters to greater efficiency in the administration and a quickened public conscience. But notwithstanding this the consensus of opinion seems to be that this class is steadily increasing. This is true notwithstanding the fact that the chief causes are well known and have been for centuries. It was Burton, who wrote nearly three hundred years ago the Anatomy of Melancholy, who said that disease, mental and physical was so common in England that scarcely a family escaped the taint, and he attributed it largely to the fact that although the farmer was careful to arrange for the best improved stock and the gardener the most carefully selected seeds for his grounds, no care whatever was paid to the improvement of the human race, and anyone who desired was permitted to marry. The theory that he entertained, as implied by his comments, is entertained now quite frequently, and we see references to it in the action of medical societies and other scientific gatherings, urging that the marriage laws be improved, that marriage be made more difficult, and that persons should be permitted to marry only after careful examination mental and physical, and that the examination shall be by competent persons. Our laws have never kept pace with our knowledge. We have had discussion for years about juvenile offenders and how to reform them, and it would appear that the great body of criminal population comes from juvenile offenders, and that by proper treatment these juvenile offenders could be so reformed as to prevent a great many criminal careers, which result from early indiscretions. Yet it is only in a few places, like Denver and Chicago and Buffalo, where an attempt has been made in the matter of criminal jurisprudence as it relates to the young, to exercise preventive measures. A little has been accomplished, and time is required to show the effects of the new system of treating children. To illustrate the evils of our methods I will refer to a fact which came to my knowledge on the occasion of a visit to a leading penitentiary, one of the best conducted, in the opinion of prison men. In passing through the workshops I came to one where at one bench sat twenty boys, all in the same position, bending over the machines, using the same muscles hour after hour and day after day, and the majority seemed to be under sixteen. I was attracted by two, one a boy

of twelve, who had been sentenced for a year for larceny; another a boy who said he was eleven, but who might have been twelve, who had been sentenced for five years for larceny. These boys were subjected to severe prison discipline and to evil environment at an age when they should have been out at play or at school, and under a humane and properly administered prison system they would have been. I learned that although that state had a large industrial school, no child who had been convicted of crime could be received by it. Segregation of these boys in this way means training them for lives of crime, and spending the time if they are convicted, within prison walls.

We have in the state of Iowa tried another kind of segregation. It is a theory with many that the inebriate is a diseased person, and that what he requires is treatment in a hospital until he is cured. Acting on that theory the legislature provided for opening in the hospitals for the insane, departments for inebriates to which they should be committed and treated for their habits. The departments were opened and the inebriates began to come in. They were gathered from the gutters and slums, and wherever found and brought into the institutions for treatment. They were compelled to lead orderly lives. They had good treatment, and improved and were well dressed, and when they reached that point they began to leave. There was no provision in the law by which they could be confined, except as the insane are confined. The inebriates exercised over the insane a very detrimental influence. They would tease the insane, and at last the condition became intolerable. It may be true that the inebriate should be incarcerated and kept in confinement with his own kind, and not placed among a different class of people. It is suggested, rather than insisted by the report under discussion, that the proper remedy for the evils which are transmitted by heredity is segregation. It will be found exceedingly difficult to apply this without serious injustice, except in some clear cases. Is science in such a state of development that we know positively what traits of character and what physical defects may be transmitted? Is it true that forms of mental activity are transmitted, that the criminal father may have a criminal son? We know that is not true which was taught a short time ago, that certain diseases are transmitted from father to son, but only a predisposition to acquire the disease. We are told that the teachings of the evil effects from marriage of near relatives are not true and that the evil effects are not those which have been portrayed, but only in the accentuation of family peculiarities. Can we enter upon any general scheme by which degenerates shall be confined without great danger of harm to those who should not be confined? Every person is entitled to

life, liberty and the pursuit of happiness, so far as he does not interfere with the rights of others. And while the police power of the state is sufficient to take any person whose presence in the community will work evil and separate him from the community; while the power of the state is sufficient to take from the family children, who by reason of evil environment, are trained to lives of crime, and place them where they can have a better chance in life, yet those powers are extraordinary. We do not know to what extent they can be carried, and they should be administered with great care. It should be further remembered that the purpose of parenthood and childhood is not the same and can not be placed on the same level as those of the stock breeder. Physical perfection, size, and those considerations which are of prime importance on a stock farm have little to do with the rearing of children. Mentality is the thing which is of the most importance, and the physical is subordinate to that. The psychic influences are the ones of primary value, hence it will not do for us to say that no person who is physically imperfect shall be permitted to be a parent. But there are classes, undoubtedly, which can be properly restrained. As to the feeble-minded the optimistic views of the early workers among them do not seem to have been sustained. It used to be thought that 25 per cent. could be made law-abiding and competent citizens, who could be trusted to take care of themselves in life and to marry and be given in marriage, and that some could be made to reach half way to the full mental capacity of the normal person, but the students of this class now tell us that very few reach to the normal standard of men, and very few are capable of taking care of themselves except in institutions where they work under friendly guidance and supervision. Where the mental status and the physical status of a person are ascertained, where science has spoken its final word and it is plain that any particular degenerate can not enter into the ordinary relations of life without endangering posterity, then I would say the state should take that person and keep him in confinement so long as the danger exists. But while I would favor the general idea of the segregation of many kinds of defectives, the power should be exercised with great care, and to avoid mistakes, doubts should be resolved in favor of the liberty of the individual.

Miss Mary Vida Clark, State Charities' Aid Association, New York.— Mr. Johnson's picture of the colony for defectives is really ideal. Here people are gathered together and put under conditions of life where they can enjoy themselves with Arcadian simplicity and have every ambition realized. But I have wondered whether there is not one class of defectives who should be ex-

cluded from such a colony. I mean defective children whom there is hope, through education, of bringing somewhere near the standard of normality. It seems to me that there must be considerable danger that the abnormality of such children may be increased by their abnormal environment. Should we not surround the abnormal child with a normal environment as a help towards bringing it nearer to a normal condition than it would otherwise attain? That may be a very unorthodox opinion. But institution life is supposed to have a stunting effect on a child's development, even a normal child. The ordinary child in our orphan asylums is somewhat below the normal development of children of the same age who are kept at home; some people say three or four years below. If the institution has that effect on a normal child why is it not reasonable to suppose that it would have that effect, perhaps even to a greater extent, on an abnormal child? It would be well if we could consider somewhat more the opportunities for education outside of the institution for the abnormal child, along the line that London has followed for many years and which Boston and New York are entering upon. That is the treatment of the child, the abnormal child, in its own home, or, if it has no suitable home, in a boarding home with normal people. In London several thousand children are treated in this way. They live at home and attend day school, special schools for defectives. They are in a normal environment where they are carefully watched. I have wondered if we could not do something more of that here. We have one school for deficient children in New York, but it is too young for us to say what the results are. Is it not, however, well worthy of further experiment?

Dr. A. C. Rogers, Superintendent School for Feeble-minded, Minnesota.— I would like to say a word with regard to special schools such as Miss Clark has referred to. I think all the members of this committee would be in perfect accord with Miss Clark. There is no antagonism on this principle. Segregation only applies to those who must be segregated, and from that class there is a certain number that might go back into the community temporarily. But there are a great many in the school whose parents took care of them till they died, and who then find it impossible to hold their own in the world and they drift into institution care. There is no disposition to segregate from society any one who can be returned. That is a thing to be avoided by all means.

Miss Frances G. Curtis, Boston.— Having had a certain amount of experience of the difficulties resulting from public opinion of the value of special care of the feeble-minded I should

like to know if there is anything this section can do in the way of educating public opinion in this matter. It has seemed to us in Massachusetts that there was great need of the education of overseers of the poor, among others. For instance, after a girl has been committed to our splendid school for the feeble-minded they have the power, (and often exercise it), to take her out if they think the expense is too great, or because the family wants her back. It seems to me that this Conference might do a great deal in the education of public opinion, to make sure that every one understands that the "liberty of the individual" is not jeopardized by any such rightful regulation of defectives.

Dr. J. M. Murdoch, Superintendent School for Feeble-minded, Polk, Pa.— In connection with these schools, the special schools or classes for the feeble-minded, it would be desirable to have after-care committees established which will follow up the life and care of those who have passed through the schools. These private schools for the feeble-minded are springing up rapidly in the larger cities and there is a danger that these schools will be more for those who should properly enter the special institution for the feeble-minded where they will be under complete control. It is to be hoped that these schools will be made clearing houses for those who should go into the special institution where they will be trained for life in colonies, and retain in the day school only such as are fitted to attend that. We find that the children that enter the institution early in life become accustomed to it, learn to feel at home there and live happy lives in congenial surroundings, while those who come later are more likely to be discontented. After they have become habituated to the life of the street and have acquired evil habits, they are less contented in the colony than those who enter early in life. There is in Birmingham, England, in connection with the special school an after-care committee to follow and give special care to those who pass from the school. Their experience there has been unfortunate. A very small percentage of those who pass through the schools are able and competent to hold the positions that the committee finds for them and consequently drift into idle ways. The committee therefore urges strongly that more children be sent to the boarding schools and fewer to the day schools. When in an institution we know that a child will have to be cared for at public expense it is best that we should place it during its early years where it will be happy and useful.

A paper on Colonizing the Feeble-minded was read by Dr. Rogers. (Page 254).

A paper on "An Ideal Colony," by Dr. W. P. Spratling, superintendent N. Y. State Hospital for Epileptics, was read by Dr. Murdoch. (Page 259.)

DISCUSSION ON COLONIES FOR DEPENDENTS.

DR. W. H. C. SMITH, Superintendent Home and School for Nervous and Backward Children, Godfrey, Ill.— Those interested in the matter of sterilization will get some valuable information by asking some questions of Kansas. The state institution gave the matter a great deal of consideration with some unfortunate results. With reference to the excellent papers that have been read I want to say that the great trouble in this work is to find competent workers, competent employees. It is far easier to create an institution than to get officers. The home idea should be the one to be considered for defectives. It goes without saying that the cases for institution care should be segregated. I know of no more important work than the care of the hundred thousand feebleminded children who are classified in the last census. What we want is more heart education and more employees with heart as well as brain.

A MEMBER.— Is the home of the child the best place for it?

DR. SMITH.— Strangers can care for a feeble-minded child better than its parents.

A MEMBER.— What do you think of industrial colonies for the feeble-minded?

DR. SMITH.— I think them very essential.

A MEMBER.— What is the proportion of cures of epilepsy?

DR. MURDOCH.— The percentage of cures has been very small, not exceeding five per cent. It is hardly right to speak of "curing" epilepsy. Some children outgrow it under proper environment, with careful habits of diet, regularity, etc. There is a small percentage of cures of epilepsy from trauma, when an operation is performed within a reasonable time after the injury.

MR. F. B. SANBORN.— Dr. Flood who has charge of the large institution in Massachusetts gave it to me as his opinion that four per cent was the largest percentage that he could count upon even with the favorable cases of children.

REV. H. H. HART.— There is no class that need more the sympathy and the kindness of the community than the epileptics. This is a disease about which the medical profession knows almost nothing. There is no disease of which the medical profession acknowledges itself more ignorant. A person has a seizure and hopes he will not have another. But he has a second, a third

and gradually the disease fastens itself upon him. And there comes a transformation of the disposition, of the character of the individual, that is painful. He is suspicious, irritable, antagonizes his friends and at the same time wants and needs their sympathy. He is possessed by a terrible agony lest he shall commit some terrible act. Every epileptic is more or less dangerous. During the seizure he is liable to commit any act and if he is intelligent he knows that and feels the terror of it. As the disease goes on there is a gradual decay of the mental faculties which is exceedingly painful. The most pathetic thing in the world is to see a man trying to hold on to his mentality while he feels that it is slipping away from him. That is most lamentable.

And the unfortunate thing is these poor people have no place provided for them, or only with the feeble-minded or the insane. The epileptic seizures are frightful to those who have to see them, especially to the insane. The insane feel that it is an injustice to them to have to see these things and the epileptics feel it is a cruelty to be shut up with the insane when they themselves are not insane. Each feels that his chance of being cured is lessened by the presence of the other.

These are reasons why we should take this matter up. It does not involve any additional expense. There is not a large state in the union but that has enough epileptics in its institutions for the insane to make room in the insane asylums, if the epileptics were taken out, for the insane in all the poor houses of the state. I do not believe there is anything that we can do which is more humane than to create a public opinion which shall lead to the proper care of epileptics by the state.

Mr. Alex. Johnson.— The report which I read, carefully excepted those cases which are fit to be restored to society. There are always some such cases. Segregation is not an absolutely final thing. It is not like capital punishment. If an error is made it can be corrected.

When discussing the education of the abnormal, while they remain among the normal, it is an error to think that what is done for these children is done wholly, or chiefly, in the school room proper. That is by no means true, for it ignores the influences of the play-ground and the common daily life. The influence of the children upon each other is much more valuable than what we do for them by our teaching. Is it not true that what we got from our comrades during our school life, even the rough knocks on the play-ground, the squabbles and rough play, the leadership and the following, was worth more than the purely scholastic work? If any man tells me that what he got outside did not do more to make a man of him than what he got in the

school room, I think he has forgotten his experiences. Wellington said that the battle of Waterloo was won on the play-grounds of Eton, Harrow and Rugby.

To take an abnormal child for four hours daily for specialized instruction and then send him back among normal children, leaving them together for the other twenty hours is not of much value. The normal environment for the abnormal is where they are together, where they act on each other. But they must be like each other to get benefit from companionship. Hence the secret of success in our work is classification and this is the reason for large institutions so that there may be classes adapted to each. "In the country of the Blind, the one-eyed man is King." Take a little girl, dull and stupid, with little animation or force and put her among girls brighter than herself and she is the butt of the division: place her in another room with children not so bright as she is and she may soon become a leader. For these and many other reasons, the day school cannot replace the Institution.

We must also remember that our institutions do not and cannot, by any process, make an abnormal child normal. In the school for the deaf, you do not restore the hearing of a deaf child, nor do you give sight to the pupils in the institution for the blind, and we do not make the feeble-minded child into a strong-minded adult. We educate them as far as they are capable of education. We make them as near to the normal as we can. But they will always require special conditions of life, and these can be given them best and most cheaply by the method of segregation.

Adjourned at 12 M.

SIXTH SESSION.

Saturday Night, May 9, 1903.

The Conference was called to order by the President at 8 P. M., after music by the choir of the Jewish Temple. Prayer was offered by Rev. A. R. Holderby, D. D.

Mr. Devine made an announcement concerning the publication "Charities," urging the members of the Conference to support it.

The subject of the evening was the report of the Committee on Destitute Children, Truancy, Child Labor and Recreation, Mr. Hugh F. Fox chairman. Mr. Fox presided during the discussion. The first address of the evening was given by Miss Jane

Addams of Hull-house, Chicago, on "Child Labor and Pauperism." (Page 114.) Papers were read by Edgar Gardner Murphy, on "Child Labor as a National Problem," (Page 121), by D. A. Tompkins, on "The Sociological Work of the Cotton Mill Owners," (Page 161), and by Hoke Smith, on "Child Labor and Illiteracy," (Page 188).

Adjourned at 10:30 P. M.

SEVENTH SESSION.

Monday Morning, June 11, 1903.

The Conference was called to order at 9:30 A. M. by the President. Prayer was offered by Rabbi David Marx D. D. Mr. H. H. Hart, on behalf of the Committee on Resolutions offered the following resolution which was adopted.

RESOLVED, that in the opinion of the National Conference of Charities and Correction, it is desirable that the commissions appointed by the several states to arrange state exhibits for the Louisiana Purchase Exposition shall make the charitable and correctional institutions and agencies of their several states a prominent feature of such state exhibitits, in view of the fact that these institutions not only absorb a great part of the disbursements from the state treasuries, but also form the highest expression of the beneficent spirit of our people.

That this Conference suggests to the said state commissions that such exhibits be grouped together in the general exhibit, in order that they may be studied comparatively for educational purposes.

MR. ALVIN E. POPE, in charge of the charities and correction exhibit at the Louisiana Purchase Exposition, St. Louis, gave some details of the plans for the exhibit in his charge and urged the members of the Conference to send exhibits of the different institutions, schools and work that they were doing and to have their exhibits classified by subjects.

THE PRESIDENT said that he echoed what Mr. Pope had said and hoped influence would be brought to bear upon the different states to put their exhibits where they would be arranged in a scientific, classified method where they can be seen and studied.

MESSRS NIBECKER and KELLOGG were appointed a committee to audit the treasurer's reports. This committee afterwards re-

ported that they had examined the books and found them to be correct. The report was adopted and the report of the treasurer ordered to be put on file.

Mrs. B. H. Trumbull, from Portland, Oregon, asked if there were not members present with whom arrangements could be made for addresses on the various subjects connected with the Conference to the people on the Pacific coast. She said she brought invitations from San Francisco, Tacoma, Olympia and Portland. She thought an arrangement might be made for a tour of these towns if they could get volunteers to come and help and advise them on the subject of charity and correction.

The subject for the morning was the report of the Committee on The Insane. In the absence of the chairman, Dr. Peterson, of New York, Dr. J. T. Searcy, Superintendent State Hospital for the Insane, Alabama, took charge of the discussion. Dr. Searcy read a paper entitled "For what Classes should the State make Provision?" (Page 418.)

A paper on "Reception or Psychopathic Hospitals in Large Cities," by Dr. M. A. Spink of Indianapolis, was read. (Page 428.)

A paper by Dr. Wm. J. Herdman of Ann Arbor, was read by Dr. Keene. (Page 434.)

DISCUSSION ON CARE OF THE INSANE.

Mr. Albert L. Harwood, Board of Insanity, Massachusetts. — I am interested in this matter of the care of the insane, having been on the state board of insanity for four years. In spite of all our provision for the insane in Massachusetts we have today nearly a thousand patients who have to sleep at night on beds that are made up in the corridors of our hospitals. This is not on account of niggardly appropriations, because last year there was an appropriation made by the legislature without a dissenting vote of over six hundred thousand dollars and this year we have asked for more than a million dollars and it has been considered by the committee on public charitable institutions and they have reported favorably upon the entire amount that has been recommended by the state. Whether it will be cut down by the committee on ways and means is not settled. I speak of this because it shows how insanity is increasing in our state, increasing at the rate of 400 a year in that small state. To provide for an increase of four hundred persons at an expense of from five

to seven hundred and fifty dollars a bed, with the present increase in the price of building materials and labor requires a large appropriation. However, it is the object of the state board of insanity, and the boards of trustees and superintendents of hospitals, that there should be set apart in each hospital a ward for the reception of the acute cases so that they may be carefully studied and treated by the best medical treatment. We have already an appropriation for such a ward in Worcester and in Danvers. There is a class of patients that if brought to the attention of the physician when they are first attacked might yield to treatment. If some hospitals in the immediate vicinity of large communities could be established, where they could be taken for treatment there would be a very great decrease in insanity. It will be a great delight to take back to Massachusetts the report that the policy which we have been following has been so admirably set forth by the papers read this morning.

A word about the feeble-minded. We do not believe that they should be in the insane hospitals. We have an institution in Waltham where a large number are cared for and we have purchased 2,000 acres farther from Boston where we are establishing colonies for the feeble-minded. Within a year we shall have 200 in the colony.

DR. J. M. MURDOCH, Superintendent Institution for Feeble-Minded, Polk, Pa.— Very few insane persons recover after the insanity has existed for more than one or two years. At least ninety per cent of the cases which recover do so within the first year. For this reason it is of great importance that special attention be given during this period, while the disease is still in the acute stage. It is, however difficult and often impossible to persuade friends and relatives to send their dear ones to one of the large hospitals for the insane until the insanity has become chronic. In many of the large cities throughout the country psychopathic hospitals are being established for the treatment of incipient insanity with the hope that there will not be the same repugnance to the placing of friends in these institutions which exists in regard to the entrance into the larger hospitals for the insane. In Pennsylvania we have a number of general hospitals in which wards, or departments, are set aside for the care of this class of patients. This, in my mind, is the best method. Friends and relatives are, as a rule, quite willing to send the afflicted one to a general hospital. Where recovery does not take place within a reasonable period it is necessary, of course, to transfer the patient to an institution for the care of the chronic insane.

A MEMBER: Do you approve of having the feeble-minded in a hospital for the insane?

DR. MURDOCH: Most certainly not. However, if they must be under the same management, provision should be made to separate the feeble-minded from the insane as completely as possible, preferably in separate buildings.

DR. WINES.— The common practice is to separate the feeble-minded from the insane. There are many objections to associating them even under the same management. The epileptics are a continual trouble and there should be separate institutions for them. I do not think I ever heard the whole care and treatment of the insane more clearly and acutely analyzed or better stated than in Dr. Searcy's paper. I do not believe that any member of this Conference would have anything to suggest that he has not already stated. But I want to say a word about a side issue to which he referred, and that is the influence of heredity in the genesis of these various defectives. I have been working on that for a long time. There is a hopeless view of heredity taken by some people. They say that the conflict in the development of a man's individuality is between his heredity and his environment and that while you can change his environment you can not change his heredity and that he is preordained to become degenerate, and that there is no great use in working for the solution of these problems because it is hopeless, and the best thing would be to leave these people to the operation of the law of the survival of the fittest and the sooner they perish the better for the entire community.

I want to suggest on the other side of this question that heredity is a very complex thing. If you think of it the number of your ancestors increases in geometric proportion. You have two parents, four grandparents, and so on till by the time you get back ten generations, which will carry you to the landing of the Pilgrims, or may be to the time of the discovery of this continent, you will have 1024 ancestors and you have inherited a one thousand and twenty-fourth part of that composite nature. So the conflict which you see in the genesis and character is not a conflict between heredity and environment, but between different heredities and as in the cultivation of bacteria you may find a medium which is favorable to the bacillus, or unfavorable, so you may place a man who has an unfavorable heredity in an environment which is not favorable to that heredity, but is favorable to the development of the contrary. Though we cannot change his heredity the destiny of the man will be entirely different according to the environment in which he is placed. What we have to do is look after the environment and make that favorable and the case is not as hopeless as it appears on its face.

Rev. Sam Small.— What is the best plan for us to adopt in the southern states with reference to the care and treatment of the insane Negro? Before the war we had very few insane colored people, but since the war they have increased in such tremendous ratio that we do not know how to take care of them. They form a large majority of our insane who are dependent upon state charities. We want to know what to do to put an end to the increase of insanity among the colored people. So far as heredity is concerned we don't have much to count on. It is a short line of heredity that they can trace back, for it is since they became free that this increase has taken place. I confess myself that I don't believe in it. I believe that Adam and Eve had two sons, one good and one bad and that heredity started both ways at the same place. Things are more to be attributed to environment than to heredity. So far as the Negro is concerned I do not think there is any question that he is not a victim to heredity. He is a victim to his passion, his practices and his environment more than to heredity.

Dr. Searcy.— I do not know that I can give a correct answer but I will tell you what I think. First as to the question of heredity and environment, which is worth the most in the final make-up of the man? They both come in. The improvement of a bad heredity is the work of this Conference. You can improve heredity. At the same time good heredity can be impaired by environment. It works both ways. When you consider what you mean by environment you mean everything outside of you, all the processes of teaching, all the education, everything that surrounds a man. That constitutes his environment. Heredity goes into that as one of the factors, all his condition in life. If you go back seven generations in a horizontal line you have on each side sixty-four ancestors. But I believe in cross heredity; that the elements that come down from the family tree tend to cross from father to daughter and from mother to son. If you consider that and estimate how many elements come in you will be surprised. John Smith may be very proud of his name, but you will find little of John Smith perhaps in John Smith's son. The sons carry the names, and the mother's name is lost. The way of tracing heredity by names is unfair. You can not follow the mother's influence because her name has been changed.

As to the Negro question and the increase of insanity among them in the south, — that is vital. It is a fact that soon after the war liberated them there was little insanity among them. I do not believe you could take six millions of people in a body anywhere in the world at the time they were liberated and find them excel

the Negro in general healthfulness, prolificness, in sobriety, in general lack of insanity.

Rev. Sam Small.— When the Negro was imported from Africa they imported young adults, selected specimens of their tribes, as a rule. They were brought into America and into a European civilization that they had never worked out for themselves and that was of a higher grade than any they had experienced. The benefit of that and of their improved surroundings and the selfish interest of the masters, all tended to the improvement of the Negro as a race. When they emerged from slavery they were better specimens as a race than when they were brought into America. The census of 1900 shows that there are thirteen times as many Negroes insane as there were in 1870; six times as many whites. The same proportion exists in most of the asylums for the insane in the south. There is a rapid increase, a deterioration going on from bad surroundings. I do not mean that you do not find excellent examples of improvement. You find high grade people in any race. The race as a whole has not large capacity. The proportion of high grades is not great. We have one Booker Washington in Alabama, but I will find you a thousand white men that will take work of that character for the white race. The Negro when he was enslaved was enslaved because he was the most suitable person for that in the world. Go as far back in history as you will they always made slaves of the Negro. The Spaniards tried to enslave the Indians, but in a few years every Indian disappeared from the West Indies. The complaisant negro could be enslaved. During the time of slavery the negro was worked in the interests of his master, who wanted to make the most of him. He lived under rules which governed him and was a most valuable servant. He was required to get up at certain hours, to go to bed at certain hours, when the bell rang. He was obliged to keep his cabin in an absolutely cleanly condition inside and outside. He was required on every sunny day to take all his personal apparel and bed clothes and hang them on the fence where it could all be made thoroughly sweet by the air and sun. He was given sufficient food to keep him in prime physical condition. Whenever he was sick he was attended by a competent physician, who got him well with the quickest despatch, because they needed him in the field. He was given hours for sufficient recreation of a simple, rational character under the supervision of the plantation owner and mistress. He was given religious instruction on Sunday and plenty of time for rest and recreation on that day. And that contributed, as Dr. Searcy said, to make him one of the finest physical creatures in the world.

They were in as good physical and mental condition as any class of laborers that can be found on the face of the earth to-day.

But after the war came and freedom came, they were turned loose upon their own resources. They had to provide their own lodging and shelter. They had to provide their own clothing and food and medicine, and the consequence was that when the impoverished, fire and cavalry ridden country was left the Negro was the worst sufferer. Turned out to take care of himself, without labor, without any money or any land on which he could expend his own muscle and knowledge of farming, they were in a forlorn condition. Most of them followed the army and gathered in the larger cities. They are thirty-three per cent of the people in Atlanta. They settled in the slums. They fed themselves out of the garbage barrels. They bought tainted meat, because it was cheap; they bought food that had been rejected by the inspectors and the food thrown away by the hotels. They got all they could at the cheapest prices and they got the worst. They bought almost nothing but secondhand clothes. Some stole them. They got them the best they could, but went as scantily dressed as they dared without being arrested for indecency. They gathered together in these nests and lived together without the slightest regard to the requirements of morality. They became physically weak and degenerate by reason of these hard conditions under which they had to begin their life of freedom. Their condition is such that to-day you can hardly find a physician in any part of the country whether he was born in the south or came from the north, who will go to see a sick Negro when called upon until he can guarantee the fee and they almost always apply to the ward physician of the city for treatment. The present generation is giving us the greatest trouble. All through the south the Negroes are showing the effects of those conditions that followed their freedom and to-day instead of being sound physically and the happiest in mind, and having homes that are whitewashed continually and cleansed and scoured so that they are always clean, they live in houses on which there has not been a bit of whitewash since they lived there and which have never seen a scrubbing brush. A few weeks ago the police arrested seventeen colored persons living in one room of one of those hovels, men, women and children sleeping on the floor with a few vermin infested bed clothes.

These are the conditions that are making for the increase of insanity. If a man is compelled to find himself in these conditions of life, a man who has been made to believe (by the delusions held out to him by false philanthropists, who said they were his friends and intended to make him better than the white

man) that the ambition of the white man should be to be as good as a Negro — if, I say, he finds himself in this condition he must see the end in sight and there is nothing at the end except insanity for the weakest of them. It is these conditions that we are continually having to fight against. We are a poor people. We have not accumulated vast wealth since the war. Our people are bearing the hardest burden of taxation that can be put upon them and are doing what they can for them in the way of education. But if there is any love for the Negro, if there is any philanthropy that would lift him out of his present environment, which is self-inflicted, yet from which he can not lift himself; if there is any sort of patriotic desire that these men shall ever be worthy of the highest privilege of citizenship, that their children shall grow into something that will make them worthy of what the great nation has done for them in expenditure of blood and money, then we must direct our effort towards the improvement of their living conditions.

Adjourned at 12:30 P. M.

EIGHTH SESSION.

Monday Afternoon, May 11.

The Conference was called to order at 2 P. M., by the Chair. Mr. Hugh F. Fox presided during the discussion. The first paper was by Mr. Frederick Hoffman. (Page 138.)

The second speaker was Mrs. Florence Kelly, Secretary National Consumers' League, New York. (Page 135.)

A paper by Rev. Breckenridge Wilmer was read. (Page 166.)

Mr. Frederico Degetau, of Porto Rico, was invited to speak.

MR. DEGETAU.— It was my purpose to tell you something about educational work and child labor in Porto Rico. A sentiment of gratitude to this Conference burdens me, and I think we ought to do something for the Conference also. Perhaps I can say some things that will encourage you in your noble work.

The problem of education has always been the fundamental question in the mind of the Porto Rican people, to such an extent that when the army reached Ponce and about 200 children were gathered on the stage in one of the theatres and were asked what they most wanted, they cried "Give us teachers, teachers, teachers!"

We had under the Spanish rule about five hundred schools for the whole island. We have improved those conditions. One of the first laws of the legislature was to give for education over

25 per cent. of the whole product of the island. It makes about $600,000. We have a tax of eight-tenths of one per cent. on the real property to the same end.

About child labor, when we were a province of Spain we had 16 representatives in Madrid and four senators. These men were in sympathy with a law prohibiting child labor. That law is enforced by the good will of the community.

Mrs. A. O. Granger, President of the Georgia Federation of Women's Clubs, was invited to speak.

Mrs. Granger.— I feel as if, because the club women of Georgia are so in harmony with the mill men, we ought to speak for them. The point I have in mind is one that Mr. Tompkins gave me on Saturday night. You know he said that no man who deserved a better position in a mill, with a better salary, need wait fifteen minutes for it, when those facts were known, or something to that effect; that manufacturers were all the time looking for such men, but could not find them. Why? Because of the scanty education which they have previously had. Now, we are glad to do our little part in helping to keep the children out of the mills until they have reached an age of discretion, not only that they may be physically strong, but that they may have more than that scanty education which they find in such a fine Scotch-Irish district as that in which Mr. Tompkins's own mill — which is a model mill, I am glad to say — is situated.

Another thought came to me as I heard the statistics of Mr. Hoffman. We do think of the physical element in this question. We think of the educational preparation for work, but we think most of all of the physical conditions, and that for two reasons: Not only because we do not want the little white children of the south to grow up feeble and miserable in health, but because we have here a great racial problem — as you may have heard. Now, the commissioner of labor for North Carolina tells us that "the illiterate negro sends his children to school, but the illiterate white man sends his children to the cotton mill." What will be the result of that? A dreadful increase in the difficulty of the race problem. If you have one generation and then another generation of weak and still weaker white people who are utterly illiterate, or who have only a little book-learning, and a fine strong population of negroes who would not go into the mills and who do not care enough for money to send babies to the mill, you are going to have a bigger problem than now. The Georgia and Alabama Federation of Women's Clubs have been working with success for a bill which will prevent more difficult race troubles arising from further deterioration of our own race.

Rev. S. Y. Tupper, Chaplain of the Federal Prison, Atlanta, said that there is no more important subject, nor one with more significant results, than the subject of child labor. It is not only related to pauperism in all its dark features, to illiteracy with its deplorable conditions, but it enters the realm of crime. It is education and the home influences of children that mould them into a true character and that enable them to retain that character. If they are weakened by work and become abnormal in their moral and physical condition they lose all will power to rise to better things. The community is responsible for these children who are to be the future citizens of our country. The plea that the children's labor is wanted for widowed mothers or for mothers unprovided for by indolent husbands is fallacious. As to its relation to crime, it can be readily seen that after a day's labor in the factory the child who is weak by nature and is exposed to all sorts of temptations, who has not proper home training, is easily led into a criminal life. Were the histories of all the criminals known, it would be seen that many fell into crime through early home neglect and enforced labor when children.

Mrs. J. K. Utley said that from something that had been said it would seem that the negro parent had the choice as to whether he would send his child to the mill. The colored people do the domestic labor, but their children do not go into the mills.

Mrs. J. Lindsay Johnson, Rome, Ga.— The women of Georgia wish to take the child from the loom and place it at the desk. We think it is dangerous for lazy fathers to be idle, consequently, to prevent idleness among the citizens of Georgia, they will place the fathers in the position which the children are now occupying. We feel that by so doing we shall make better citizens for this generation and stronger ones for the generations to come.

Mr. Atkinson, of New Jersey, asked if Mrs. Kelley would answer some of the statements of Mr. Hoffman.

Mrs. Kelley.— I am grateful for the privilege of calling your attention especially to the boys in the glassworks in New Jersey, to whom Mr. Hoffman referred in passing. The optimistic statement as to the glass-blowers in southern New Jersey, who are said to be as long lived as bookkeepers, I cannot combat from having known those glassworkers. But it is only a few months since a young lad going home after a night's work in one of the glass works fell asleep on the railroad track and was killed by a passing train. From this case, of which there is an elaborate

judicial record, it appears that the night employment of children in the glassworks is not unknown in New Jersey. My acquaintance is with the children in southern Illinois in the employ of the principal competitor of the New Jersey corporations, children who have hitherto worked under substantially the same lack of effective legislative protection as the children in the New Jersey glassworks; and I do not believe that there are in the world more overworked, stunted, debased and wretched children than those little boys. In both states, many of them have been taken from poor-houses by people who exploit them and take for themselves the wages which the children earn by day or by night, sending the boys ragged and dirty from their homes to their work. It is utterly incredible that these children should exhibit a rate of mortality less than that of children who spend their days at school and their nights in bed. I have seen children in the glass-bottle works in Illinois sleepily staggering under their burden of red-hot glass bottles at two o'clock in the morning. They sometimes inflict upon each other, and even upon themselves, frightful burns because they are so overcome with sleep that they do not know what they are doing. I have seen young boys who had lost an eye by reason of collision with others as they staggered stupidly about in the hours following midnight, between the blower and the annealing oven. The characteristic diseases of these children are nervous dyspepsia, rheumatism, pneumonia and tuberculosis. Many of them die before they reach the age of apprenticeship, which is seventeen years. Of those who survive to this age, many have no stamina wherewith to work into valuable trades. Thus they never appear in any statistics dealing with the health or mortality of skilled workers. *Their* mortality records should be sought in the annals of life and death of the pitifully unskilled. By the rules of the union, fifteen apprentices are allowed to one hundred blowers actively engaged in the trade; while every blower of small and medium bottles needs three little boys who, far from being apprentices, are known in some glassworks as "Blower's dogs." Thus the unskilled young children, who have little hope of entering at any future time the ranks of skilled workers, are as 300 to 100 blowers, while the apprentices who are on the road to becoming skilled workers and appearing in Mr. Hoffman's cheerful statistics of blowers and bookkeepers, are as 15 to 100!

In estimating the healthfulness of a child-employing industry, it is not fair to deal only with skilled workers. To make a fair statement, we must ascertain the deaths (and disabilities due to work) of all the children employed in the industry year by year, and also the age at which they drop out of the industry and the

cause of the dropping out. Until we can get such data of the life and death and disability of all who enter the glass trade, skilled and unskilled, let us beware of deluding ourselves with the hope that little boys can be robbed of sleep, exposed to rapid and excessive changes of temperature, exhausted by continuous exercise in overheated places, debarred entrance into the trade which they humbly serve,— yet come out long-lived craftsmen! And while we are waiting for the data, let us stop this wholesale, needless, ruthless destruction of these boys.

Miss Addams was asked to sum up the discussion.

Miss Jane Addams, Hull House, Chicago.— The meeting has been going so steadily in one direction that there seems to be no necessity for summing up the argument. However, Georgia has not yet secured a child labor law, and it may be useful to give you some of the arguments which come up in every state when the child labor law is under discussion, and some of the replies to these arguments which have served in Illinois.

One which we constantly met we learned to call the "self-made man" argument. We were told a hundred times, — I am going to be moderate — that Mr. Rockefeller and all the other successful men went to work when they were twelve years old, that all the merchants and manufacturers secured their business start when they were babies. In all this absolutely no account was taken of the changes in industrial and commercial life which have taken place during the last thirty years. A successful merchant told me exactly what he did when he was twelve years old, and I found that he went to the country store very early in the morning, that he took down the shutters and swept the floor, that during the day he waited on customers, most of whom he knew personally, that part of the day he delivered the packages and stopped a moment for a friendly cookey or ginger snap; that later he kept the books and accounts; that his employer sometimes took him with him when he went to a larger city to buy goods. In short, he had an almost ideal opportunity for learning the business methods of a rising merchant in a country town, just the sort of education the business schools are trying to reproduce. When I asked him how nearly that corresponded to the training boys were getting in his own store, he admitted that the boys who carried cash from early in the morning until late at night had little sense of relation to the business and no real identification with its wider interests. The whole thing was as unlike his experience as two childish experiences could be, — one varied and educational, the other monotonous and deadening.

A certain manufacturer who went to work when he was ten and is now a Chicago millionaire, kindly gave me the outlines of

his boyish experience. He began as a miner, and learned the various manufacturing processes, from the handling of the crude ore to the finished product, in quite the same way as the most advanced schools are reproducing in miniature, an experience incomparably more valuable than that of a boy tending a machine in his big factory. Indeed, nothing is more fallacious than an argument based upon personal experiences of thirty years ago. I always feel like saying to these men, "You show the weakness of the self-made man, when your sole standard is that of personal experience, and you find it impossible to use any other form, even when the basis for that experience is totally changed."

Another argument is the "idleness argument." We were constantly asked whether we would advocate idleness for a child. Certainly no one who is in touch with the new education could for a moment stand for idleness, but we advocate not only work, but work which has an educational value. We claim that there is no educational value in the subdivided labor of most factories. A child who remains year after year in a spinning room gets no education nor incentive to work, but almost surely acquires a distaste for all labor. In a soap factory in Chicago a number of little girls wrap up bars of soap in two covers each, at the minimum rate of three thousand bars a week, and I assure you that they find no education in it beyond habits of promptness in beginning and quitting. Their only ambition is to wrap as fast as possible in order to make as much money as possible. The work is done only well enough to pass the foreman's inspection, — to do it better than that is considered the height of foolishness. The girl whose envelope contains the largest sum at the end of the week is filled with pride, not altogether unworthy, perhaps, but we would hardly call it an adequate educational motive.

Thirdly, the educational test will be opposed on the ground that it works hardship to the foreign-born children, and I can only assure you out of long experience that that is not the case. Many of our Italian neighbors, newly-arrived immigrants, see no use in a child's being taught to read and write. The only test which is valid with them is the earning capacity of the child. If he can go to work without knowing reading and writing, it will be done. If he cannot go to work without this preliminary examination, his parents will see to it that he is taught as rapidly as possible. I recall a case in New York. The factory inspector discovered an illiterate Bohemian girl of 15. For some reason the trial was delayed six weks, and when the girl was finally brought before the Justice, he found that she could read the simple sentences which he put to her. The factory inspector was amazed, and declared that she could not read six weeks before, to

which the father triumphantly replied: "No, she could not, but she go every day to school and every night to night school. On Sunday she goes to two Sunday-schools, and a teacher comes to teach her at home." The father had become convinced that his daughter could not bring him in money until this absurd requirement of education had been secured; and so he had pushed her to secure it as quickly as possible. As she was a bright girl, she had succeeded after a fashion in six weeks.

It is because modern industrial processes are so monotonous, and because the routine is so deadening to the unenlightened mind, that we must keep the children out of it, until they get a start towards that larger life which lies outside our daily occupations, and yet which really forms so large a part of life. I should like to dissent from one view which was given this afternoon. I am not willing to admit that the mill-owners are guided by avarice, but I believe that an ever-increasing number of them are opposed to child labor, and as they see more of actual conditions their numbers will grow larger.

NINTH SESSION.

Monday Night, May 11, 1903.

The Conference was called to order at 8 P. M. by the President after music by the choir of the Presbyterian church. Prayer was offered by Rev. A. E. Seddon, of Atlanta. The report of the Committee on Organization was made and unanimously adopted. The list of officers and committees thus elected will be found at the beginning of the volume.

The following resolutions, reported by the Committee on Organization were unanimously adopted:

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON ORGANIZATION.

Resolved that it is the sense of the Committee on Organization that reports of Committees should be historic and scientific, as far as possible, and that they should not be published as reports of committees unless endorsed by members of the committee.

This is not intended to prevent chairmen from expressing their own views in such form as they may think best, independently of their reports.

Resolved that a vice chairman be appointed for each section.

Resolved that a committee shall be appointed to increase the Conference membership, consisting of Mrs. E. E. Williamson,

Chairman, Elizabeth, N. J. — Nathan Bijur, N. Y. City,— Alfred O. Crozier, Wilmington, Delaware. The committee to have power to increase its own membership.

The order for the evening was the report of the Committee on Needy Families in their Homes, including Legal Aid, Mr. Edmond J. Butler, N. Y. chairman. The report was read by Mr. Butler who presided during the discussion. (Page 272.)

A paper on Aid by Private Relief Societies was read by Mr. Thomas M. Mulry, N. Y. (Page 286.)

A paper on Relief by Public Agencies, was read by Mr. David I. Green, Hartford, Conn. (Page 291.)

A paper on Relief by Charity Organization Societies was read by Mr. Jeffrey R. Brackett, Baltimore. (Page 297.)

Discussion followed, opened by Mr. Amos W. Butler, Indiana.

DISCUSSION ON CHARITY.

Mr. Amos W. Butler, Secretary Board of State Charities, Indiana.— Indiana has applied the principles of charity organization to the whole state. A committee was appointed by the State Board of Commerce to secure reforms in township and county laws. A sub-committee was selected to take up the consideration of township official poor relief. One of the propositions made was that all official outdoor relief should be abolished. Some were not in favor of this. They thought it would be impossible for a state that had spent three-quarters of a million dollars annually in outdoor relief to stop at once. A law was drafted and passed in 1899 to control and direct those exercising the office of overseer of the poor. The principle of investigation and of getting friends and relatives to help in the support of those in need was introduced. Relief was prohibited to able-bodied tramps. Non-residents who were sick or incapable were to be given temporary relief till they could be sent where they could be provided for, after the overseers were satisfied that they could be sent on, otherwise they must be returned in the direction whence they came. The results of this law, the details of which I will not enumerate, have been remarkable. It was the result of three successive steps of legislation. One enacted in 1895 secured reports from township trustees; the second passed in 1897, put upon each township the burden of supporting its own poor. Before that it was borne by the county; the third was the law of which I have spoken. One of its most important points was that the township trustees were required to co-operate with any charity organization

or relief society in the township. The trustee was required to give them any information he had, and the secretaries of those societies were expected to give such facts as they could to him. Statistics showed that in 1895 the amount spent by the state in official outdoor poor relief and medical assistance was $630,000. The results of five years' operation of this law show that $210,000 are now expended annually for the same purposes. This is a decrease of $420,000 a year in official outdoor relief under the operation of these three successive laws.

Mr. Frederick Almy, Buffalo.— I want to make two points. The first point I make at the request of Mr. Brackett, that in the country, in small towns, there is less of the modern social work than there is in our cities, yet there is great need for such work. In such towns if the county superintendents of the poor would constitute themselves secretaries of the charity organization society they could do much, especially if they would gather about themselves investigation committees like those of the charity organization society. If in addition they could secure volunteer visitors to assist them it would mean everything in lessening the out door relief.

We believe that the bottom cause of poverty is usually some lack of character and for this reason we work closely and much with the churches. Sloth and appetite, those chief causes of poverty, are only to be overcome by building up the character, and by spiritual care and social work we are slowly but surely coming on. Human nature is imperfect still, but the bestial, squalid poverty is surely going.

Mr. James J. McLoughlin, President Society for Prevention of Cruelty to Children, New Orleans, La.— In New Orleans we have not as many poor people in proportion as they have in New York, but we have a great many and we find that the gulf between the poor and the rich is made wider and wider. From my experience I believe that the only proper way to administer charity is to give yourself. It is the personal element in all charity which is the best.

Mr. Benjamin Pettee, Overseer of the Poor, Boston, Mass. — Our board of overseers consists of twelve people the majority of whom are connected with private charities who try to keep in touch with everything in that line and I believe they are all doing good work. Mr. Green says that overseers of the poor are apt to cater to landlords. In Boston no rent is given and we have no occasion to cater to landlords. He spoke of Brooklyn as having given up out door relief. I have had some experience with Brooklyn which makes me feel that there are some loopholes to fill. We have charge of some trust funds. The rela-

tive of one of the testators lives in Brooklyn and he received fifty dollars every year, which is the part of the income that can be assigned. He has written that it is not enough to get on with. I wrote to a private charity and asked if they could not help. They said they gave no private relief except for temporary cases when they gave ten or fifteen dollars a year, but said they had turned the letter over to the public authorities. Later I received a letter from the public department saying that the only thing to do was to take this worthy couple to the almshouse. God save the commonwealth from that sort of charity if that is all it can do.

Mr. Almy said the other day that they had had no relief funds until recently and that since they had had a thousand dollars given them, their agents had been giving more freely than formerly and he attributed that to the laziness of the agents. To my mind he injures his own people. I should think it was their idea that people actually needed more, but not having the means they had to wait to get what was actually necessary.

Reference was made to breaking up families. The overseers try to keep families together in Massachusetts; they think that that is the best way. If one of the parents is respectable they try to keep them together. They feel it is harmful to put a child into any institution. There is little good done in keeping children there. The home is the best place if they have a good mother, no matter how bad the father may be.

MR. JAMES F. JACKSON, General manager Associated Charities, Minneapolis.— What do we mean by investigation? A little while ago a volunteer worker came to me and said she wished I would help to get a woman out of a house that was likely to fall down upon her. I went and the house was really ready to tumble down. There wasn't a square thing about it. The old lady having lost the use of her hands made a most pitiful appeal for fuel and food and rent and one would have said surely this is a place for giving help. Investigation showed that the woman was the owner of country property, that she had a daughter amply able to support her and for ten years had been trying to get her out of that condition. That is the sort of thing that the volunteer does not find out alone. I went to see another old lady. She said she was out of everything; that she had no flour, no potatoes, nothing. She showed me where she kept her flour and it was evident she was telling the truth. I asked where the sack was that had held the flour. She said she had washed that, but the dust of the flour lay where the sack had been. I did not believe her and in going about the house I found 175 pounds of flour. I went to another old lady and asked how she was get-

ting along. She was looking after her aged husband, who had reformed from drink because he was so old he could not earn money to pay for whiskey. She had one little room which was absolutely clean. She was very grateful for work and I asked her about her flour. I found she had three pounds. One who makes initial investigations must have had experience, but I am a devoted admirer of the volunteer worker. That is the star act in the whole business, but you must have a continuous active element in the matter. You must have the skilled person, the expert in the beginning. The paid worker is essential as an auxiliary to the successful volunteer worker.

Mr. John M. Glenn, Supervisor of City Charities, Baltimore.— I would like to supplement Mr. Jackson's excellent words about investigation. We must keep clearly in mind that investigation is not merely or chiefly used to discover whether people are trying to hide their resources. It is not primarily for detective purposes. The investigator must have clearly in mind the betterment of an individual or family and he must try to find out what they have and what they have not. He must get at the root of the trouble and the remedies and the various persons and agencies who can relieve properly. Looking up relatives and churches and employers for the purpose of inducing them to aid is as much a part of the investigation as looking into the needs of the family. The object of investigation is the same as the object of the doctor in inquiring into the causes of disease. It is to obtain information which is essential to wise action. Investigation must be sympathetic and patient or it may be as bad as acting without investigation. Experience shows that the number of frauds exposed by investigation is small compared to the numbers of persons who are more wisely and thoroughly aided because of careful investigation. A family is not to be turned down because investigation discloses the fact that its members have not told the truth. That may be a reason for energetic effort to improve their habits. Thorough investigation is one of the most necessary factors in charitable work. Its chief object is to enable us to do positive, constructive work wisely.

Mr. E. T. Devine.— The situation in a good many communities is really pretty bad. In the thriving little town of 12-000 in which I live it is pretty bad. Two years ago grocery orders were hawked about in that city at fifty per cent. The coal dealer who fills the orders of the commisisoner of charities has taken quarter tons of coal to people and had to bring it back because the coal bins were full and there was no place for it. The aid that should be given in emergencies is often delayed. Such situations are not uncommon and they

ought to be dealt with. I have recently had occasion to see an exceedingly interesting letter written by the superintendent of one of the counties in New York City in which public outside poor relief was abolished five years ago. It was thought that there would be difficulty because the people had been accustomed to the distribution of outdoor relief, but there has not been any particular difficulty. In every instance some relief society or church, or private citizen or group of friends, has done what had to be done. When the responsibility is placed upon a public official for co-operation with relief agencies, it is possible to meet the need in such a way that people will not suffer. Personally I feel as Mr. Mulry does, that it is best that the help that needs to be given to people in their own homes should be given by private citizens and associations rather than from the public treasury, and I should add rather than from churches as such. You must divide somewhere and it seems to me the natural and obvious dividing line is that the people shall care for those in institutions and for those in whose care the necessity for public control enters, while those who are to be cared for in their own homes, where the delicate task arises of maintaining family life by outside financial aid, should be cared for through private agencies.

A word about tuberculosis. This is not a problem of the great eastern cities alone. A physician in Atlanta has told me that the amount of tuberculosis here is appalling and it is essential that something should be done about it; that the problem of caring for consumptive Negroes is most serious. As soon as it is known that they are tuberculous they lose their positions in families. There are no hospitals or sanatoria for them, and what to do with them is a problem. That is the problem of every city in the country, not only with reference to Negroes but to people of every race. It is a disease that, taken in time, can be cured. The trouble is we have no hospitals for it. It is a shame and disgrace that we do not provide them, and it is because the money is so much needed for this and other purposes that I begrudge having it worse than wasted in the way in which it is spent in many communities.

Adjourned at 10:30 p. m.

SECTION MEETING.

NEEDY FAMILIES.

Friday Afternoon, May 8, 1903.

The section on Needy Families in their homes was called to order at 2:30 P. M., by the chairman, Mr. Edmond J. Butler, N.

Y. Papers were read on the following topics: "Material Aid," by Dr. L. K. Frankel, New York (page 317), Industrial Aid, by Michael Heyman, New Orleans (page 315), Educational and Religious Aids, by J. Carroll Payne, Atlanta, Georgia. (Page 329.)

General discussion followed, of which the chief points are given.

Dr. Jeffrey R. Brackett, Maryland.— Dr. Frankel has honored me by quoting a remark I made after an address in New York in answer to a question about special appeals for specific cases of need. I said in that address what I feel strongly, that that community is in the best condition which needs and has very few agencies which raise large funds for ordinary material relief, and I believe it. I was referring by "our ready relief" to the giving chiefly of food, fuel and clothes, usually in small quantities; the survival of the "doles," so often seen in old England. I was not referring to such cases as the following: One of the agents of our society was asked by a kind lady in one of our churches to supply a large number of names of families to whom this lady could send Christmas dinners. The agent said to her frankly that she did not know of any families that were not going to have their own Christmas dinners, either purchased by the head of the family or given by their church or some friend. But she said she knew of a consumptive girl who had been supporting her family till she had broken down, and a hundred dollars, about, was wanted to send her into the country, to keep her there till she had recovered from the incipient consumption. The kind lady rejoiced to give generously to this purpose.

When we come to educational and preventive work, I think we may raise money for many cases of need by special appeals, and it is educational to do it. Sometimes the donors do not wish to know about the needy persons. Sometimes they do. On the educational and preventive work I think we can and should expend more than we have been doing. I do not agree with Dr. Frankel if he means that it is well for committees to raise large general funds, for the usual material relief. I base my judgment not so much on my own experience as upon the convictions I receive when I read of the work of Dr. Chalmers and Miss Hill and Mrs. Bosanquet; and when I recall in the light of the experience of us all, that "Man does not live by bread alone."

Mrs. J. D. Eichberg, of Atlanta, spoke of the work that is being done among families in this city.

F. K. Ward, president of the Helping Hand League of Cedar Rapids, Iowa, told of the starting of a woodyard and a bath room

for women and children in connection with mission work. About 175 families had been helped, largely by helping them to help themselves. The able-bodied work for what they receive; the helpless are helped.

MR. EDWARD GRAUMAN, Louisville, Ky., told of similar work there, where they give lodgings to from 25 to 40 all the year round. They receive a bath, have their clothes fumigated, get a clean bed and lodging, supper and breakfast, for three hours' work. It is supported entirely by private subscriptions. All public aid has been declined, because, said the speaker, "we knew that as soon as we took city aid it would mean the control of some politician by appointment from the city, and where politics come into an institution it can not be carried on on the lines of pure and intelligent charity." He showed that political appointments to the insane asylum had seriously hurt the institution.

CHARLES F. WELLER, secretary of the Associated Charities of Washington, D C., laid stress on the point that relief was too apt to be inadequate. There was danger of not affording relief of the proper kind or to the proper extent.

A member from Connecticut said that it should be remembered that we are souls as well as bodies, and that he who does not take account of the spiritual part of existence is not doing his duty, even from a philanthropic standpoint.

MR. ALMY, of Buffalo, referred to the attitude of people toward a city fund. They will throw themselves upon that as they will not upon private charity. They seem to feel that they have a right to it. He was often troubled when people had to be helped lest the aid was not adequate. Agents have been so long taught that giving relief must be the last resort, that they are timid about giving to families. In the Buffalo society there are eight salaried agents, besides many church agents, who are quite as competent and as well trained. He did not favor the organization of a separate relief society.

A thousand dollars was given to a relief fund to the Buffalo society, and he found that after that the agents gave more freely.

He thought little harm would arise in giving aid to families where there was consumption to be treated.

MR. W. S. BOVARD, of Portland, Maine, said that the chronic cases of poverty in cities, where they expected to receive aid, were largely from old age, sickness, inability, etc., but there were others who spent all that they earned in summer and in winter expected the city to take care of them, and such people usually came to poverty from vicious causes. The question is how to reach them and make them feel that they must suffer the pains

of their poverty or earn an honest living. If we can learn how to deal with such cases we shall have gained a great deal.

MR W. C. MCCLAIN, of St.Louis, said that the society with which he is connected is carried on in the spirit of the associated charities, though it bears a different name. It is a very well equipped organization, housed in five separate buildings, with lecture rooms, sewing rooms, electric laundry, with a capacity for sixty women, etc. Women are trained to do laundry work and sewing. The roll of those helped is about a third less than what it used to be, and this he attributed to the principles of the associated charities as carried out there. There is also a trained nurse in connection with the organization.

MR. M. J. SCANLAN, of New York, made a plea for the wives and children of men who spend their money in summer and do not save it for winter. He thought they ought to be taken care of and not allowed to suffer on the husband's account. He said there were thousands who earned so little that they were always on the verge of starvation, women who earned 33 cents a day, for instance, and had to spend 32 to actually live. They struggle along and do not complain, and those are not the ones that come for relief to the charity organization society. The greed of the employer is too often the cause of poverty.

MR. C. M. HUBBARD, of Cincinnati, said that when the Conference should meet in St. Louis a great treat was in store for the members in visiting the institution under the charge of Mr. McClain. He said:

The thing for us to discuss here is the best method of administering relief. The standard that we ought to set up is this, that efficiency as workers is measured not by the largeness, but by the smallness of what we give. Suppose we have to help a family with $50; that is very good. We may, however, by developing the resources within the family help them to save their money and get their own $50; we have done much better work. Suppose, in developing the resources within the family we have spent a dollar, instead of fifty dollars, we are then doing the very best kind of work. The better our work the smaller will be the amount of relief given in money. If we keep that before us we are not likely to make any very serious mistake. We must give relief. That is the first step, but it is only the means to an end. If we emphasize that to the public we shall be on the right track, and we shall not take time to discuss whether we should or should not give relief, but devise means for its administration. We ought to consider rather, shall we keep families together? Shall we pay rent for a mother till the children are grown up enough to help support her? Shall we move the family into better quarters? Shall

we get them better rooms? These are the questions that will come up.

Mr. Wm. Eagleson, Columbus, Ohio, said that all outdoor relief in Columbus, in coal, groceries, shoes, etc., is given at the request of the director of public safety on the recommendation of the Associated Charities. This has lessened the amount given. In 1897 about $22,000 was expended in this way. It came down in different years to $18,000, then to $8,000, $6,000, and last year the whole distribution of relief, which was put in the hands of the Associated Charities, though given by the city, was $2,966, a very material reduction in five years. Administered in that way, public outdoor relief does not seem to be vicious. It seems just and equitable that the community, through taxation, should raise this fund for this purpose. The only question is whether it can be carefully guarded in the distribution so that it will not work harm to those that receive it.

Miss Higgins, of Boston, said she could not accept the recent distinction made by a charity worker between charity and philanthropy, — that by charity a person received something for nothing; by philanthropy, something for which you pay less than it is worth. Charity should make opportunity for the recipient to make some return in effort. Mr. Loch's definition of charity, "Love working with discernment," implies this. She said she had never found a family that did not need something besides material relief. In visiting a family there must be a dual question, What can I do for the family, and what can the family do for its own advancement? We talk about co-operation with other societies; should we not first of all, co-operate with the family itself? It has been said that relief funds for a special purpose would have no danger. I cannot conceive of any fund, not even a burial one, that would not be dangerous if poorly managed. In Boston last year, at the beginning of the coal scarcity, a fund of $65,000 was raised and was given to the care of a commission appointed by the Mayor. That committee asked the advice of the Associated Charities, who appointed a special advisory committee. The two committees worked together. At the very beginning it was felt that the industrial situation did not warrant a fund to give coal to the people. The committee accepted that decision and acted on it. When the coal panic came, every sort of pressure was brought to bear to give money for relief. All the families were investigated by an agent of the Associated Charities, placed at the disposal of the advisory committee, and there were two families, out of all the people that applied, that needed coal alone. They needed many other things. It was a problem for general societies, not for a special fund. At

the time of the panic, when it was almost impossible to distribute coal, people said to hold the fund for facilitating distribution was wrong. The plan was *not* wrong, and even the newspapers came to feel that it was right. Any plan would have failed for the few days when a furious snow storm kept the barges of coal off Cape Cod and impeded the delivery within the city of the coal at hand. Where coal and other help was needed, it was reported to the charitable societies, and in April, eighty-two per cent. of that $65,000 was returned to the donors. We were pleased, not because the donors received their money, but because the full amount was not spent in creating a need which did not exist and making independent people feel weak before conditions they were strong enough to meet. We should always first consider the power of the people to provide for themselves, and get them to co-operate with us in whatever help is to be given.

Miss M. E. Richmond: I am much obliged to Dr. Frankel for raising those questions, but I can not go along with him. We have to live by our own experience. I am not trying to live by the experience of New York, much as I value the honest, earnest study there. Mine is this. I worked as secretary of a society giving not one penny, from its own funds, in relief, for nine years. For three years I have worked as secretary of a society that during all its existence has given money from its own funds for relief. That is only a limited experience after all, but, speaking for myself, I feel now, even more than three years ago, the extreme danger of placing in the hands of a number of people, a changing population, secretaries changing, local committees changing, superintendents changing, the administration of a general relief fund, and at the same time throwing upon that body the sole responsibility of organizing the charitable relief of others. I do not find that these two things work well together. How does it work? How did I find it? Of course you may say the result was owing to bad management, but in a society having for one cardinal principle the substitution of other things for relief, wherever possible, we had in many instances the old-fashioned dole system in its worst form. Our own board was divided on this question of relief. Many people thought we should administer a large relief fund; others thought not. As soon as intelligent, progressive workers attempted the treatment of families in distress, almost invariably, without pressure brought to bear on them by the general secretary, they recognized that following up the individual case is the most useful means for accomplishing what is to be done. And so the development of the individual case system has been increased

till it is tenfold what it was two years ago, and the relief they dole from the general fund has decreased in districts where we have intelligent superintendents. Wherever we have a thoroughly capable worker trying to get good results, in his individual case there will be a measure of success. If the charity organization societies drift from their old safe moorings, from the work of organizing the charitable intelligence of the community and applying that to the individual care of the poor, then that work will have to be done by a new agency still to be developed. Then I will go in with the new agency. I do not care for charity organization as a name; I care for the thing. Let us test in a scientific way whether in the long run the special case system of relief has brought the best results, or whether the general fund has brought the best results in families. I have no question as to the result. After fifteen years' experience with what the charitable agencies are doing, I have no question that the best work will be found in societies not hampered with the administration of a general relief fund. I have no hesitation in saying that the largest amount of initiative, the largest variety of relief work, the spending of money in the most careful way, will be found in the special case system. If you fix your mind on the administration of a general relief fund you come to look on all the poverty of the world as only curable, or mainly curable, by material relief, and as due almost entirely to material causes. Of course that is only one view, and I am forced to recognize that the people who believe in the influence of environment have done a great deal, but you can go too far on that side. The pendulum is beginning to swing the other way, and people are coming to see that the chief causes of distress after all are spiritual causes that underlie the environment.

What is organized relief to do, if it takes up the task of supplementing wages? I can conceive of no more uncomfortable limbo into which relief can fall than to try to supplement wages. To try to supplement wages and so to take care of able-bodied men that they may work for less than they otherwise would, is to bring about industrial anarchy.

MR. BICKNELL, Chicago: In our Bureau of Charity work we have in the last three years developed the special case idea. We have found that it is a most admirable way to interest people in charity work. Sometimes in summer when people are away we need money very much for emergency cases. We give very little in the way of relief.

DR. FRANKEL closed the discussion. He said that there was no difference between him and Mr. Brackett; it was immaterial to him whether money was raised for special cases or in a gen-

eral fund; methods must be adapted to local conditions. If there is no money in hand for emergency cases it comes in too slowly when the public appeal is made. The relief should be a means to an end. With reference to materialism Dr. Frankel said: "There is one thing to which I must take exception, that the system that I outlined is materialistic. I deny it. I contend that the poor person of to-day is the equal of the rich. I contend that we have no right to make differences, social, material, physical or otherwise, between those who really need help and whom we are trying to help, and ourselves. No one knows at what moment we ourselves may become poor. Let us be honest. Let us admit once for all that the conditions under which our poor live are ninety per cent. due to us. I am not going to refuse material assistance to a man because he is poor through his own vices. I am willing to give material relief if I know that by doing so I can introduce other agencies that will gradually lead to his reformation. I am not going to kick him down hill because he has a vice that I have not. If we can take a family that has gone down as the result of its environment and give it the first necessary assistance that will help it to restore itself to its natural equilibrium, we are justified in doing so, and that is not materialistic.

Adjourned at 1 P. M.

SECTION MEETING, NEEDY FAMILIES IN THEIR HOMES.

Tuesday P. M., May 12, 1903.

The section was called to order by the chairman, Mr. Edmond J. Butler, at 2:15 P. M.

A brief paper was read by Mr. Michel Heymann, of New Orleans.

An address on the "Paid Worker" was given by Miss Mary E. Richmond, Secretary Associated Charities, Philadelphia, an abstract of which follows.

The entire discussion is herewith condensed.

DISCUSSION ON THE PAID WORKER.

Miss Mary E. Richmond, Philadelphia.—Some years ago I printed an article on the need of a training school for charity workers. A short time afterwards I noticed that the St. Vincent de Paul Quarterly rebuked me sharply for thinking that that was a new idea. The Quarterly said that the

great Catholic church had had a training school for charity workers for a thousand years in its religious orders. I think the Quarterly was right in taking me to task, for truly the idea is a very old one. The use of the paid worker is world-wide in the Catholic church. It may be retorted that the Sisters are not paid salaries; nevertheless they are paid. They have what many of us have not, absolute economic security for their whole lives, for sickness and old age. Our workers are not paid enough to take care of them in their old age, and they are going to be dependent sooner or later. I am not attempting any defence of the paid worker in recognizing the sanction of a thousand years; but it is a safe proposition to start out with that the paid worker has come to stay. What can we do to make him a more efficient force in the care of needy families?

The first thing is to impress the community with his importance. We should insist that he is almost the key to the situation. He should be paid as an extremely serviceable social servant. The tendency has been to feel that any one broken down in business was a fit person to be a charity worker, and inefficient persons have been kept in positions in order to find salaries for them. Only a month ago I was asked by some one connected with a child saving agency how to get rid of an old man of that type. I replied, "You are a child saving agency and you are spending a round sum of money given you for child saving to support this old man. If you want to pension that old man why don't you do it out of your own pocket, instead of using for old age pensioners money given by the public for child saving purposes?" We should not waste charity money on the wrong people.

Let us consider the qualifications of a paid worker: We may differ in a great many things in our charitable work, but I do not see how we can differ about these. I will illustrate by one who has been a paid worker for two or three months. This young worker had turned over to her one morning an inquiry from Baltimore about a runaway boy there, who said that he had relatives in Philadelphia, but that they were no longer able to take care of him; that his father used to keep a dry goods store on North S.—— street; that he was on his way to England on a cattle boat and had been taken sick.

We found none of the relatives, no trace of the people on North S——— street, no trace of the dry goods store. The investigator, feeling that her clues were running short, was yet determined not to go back to the central office until she had tried every possible one. A tenement building stood near where the store was supposed to be. She went from one floor to another

inquiring of every tenant, and in the top story she found a family who had been there some years, and they did have a dim recollection of a dry goods store there years before. After a while they recalled the man's name and said they heard he had gone out to Sharon Hill. So the investigator went out to Sharon Hill and there she found the boy's father in well to do circumstances and in great distress about his runaway boy. We telegraphed to hold the boy, and they sent back word from Baltimore that he had run away, jumping off the street car and disappearing down an alley. Detectives were set at work and one morning we were called up with the word that our boy was found. The father came to see us. He seemed a thoroughly nice, reasonable man. Now, it was only by patiently following up every clue that we were able to restore the boy to his home. Of course, there was good investigation in Baltimore. They not only took the trouble there to find every clue, but to give us all the information they had. It is by working up these little clues that the work is accomplished. The paid worker must be able to do that.

This same investigator had turned over to her an inquiry from New York. The New York C. O. S. visits the police station every morning and follows up the people arrested for begging on the streets the day before. They question each man and try to find out whether there are any possible clues that it is worth while to run down. This enquiry stated that the man had worked in a certain street in Philadelphia, and lived on such a street, etc. The address given turned out to be in the middle of the Schuylkill. The old type of investigator would have sent word that the address was wrong and nothing could be found. The new type said, there is still a stone unturned, for he mentioned one street which has not been visited in the search for traces of him. She went to that street and succeeded in finding that her man had been there, but had been away three weeks, and his relatives had detectives in search of him, for the man was slightly demented, and had wandered away from home. His photographs had been sent far and wide and detectives were doing their best to find him. Directions from the relatives were sent to hold the man, and he was brought back from New York. So investigation is not for the purpose of finding out if people are frauds. It is to find out the best thing to do under any circumstances.

You may go on until doomsday announcing as one of the cardinal principles that we must keep the family together, but unless you investigate each case carefully you may scatter the family to the four winds, without knowing it. You may do this or that thing which will undermine the family life that you think you are building up. Theories are not enough; you have got to have

theories that will work. A teacher reported certain children to be suffering. Investigation found a deserted wife and three small children in need. After very careful and patient investigation the man was found in Kentucky, living with another wife and earning a good living. Very slight clues could be obtained, but these had been faithfully followed. The sound method of work made it possible to apply the fine theory. If, acting on the report of the teacher, support had been given to the woman and children, without any further investigation, while the man was living in clover, you would have weakened the family relations and would have promoted the well-being of an unmitigated scamp.

The paid worker should be capable of seeing that the whole is greater than any of its parts. A worker may do very well in an individual case who may have little conception of charity work as a whole. One of my new workers who was a devout Presbyterian, got a conception of things as a whole when she came to talk over the treatment of a Catholic woman with whom she had been dealing. The woman had had a pretty bad record and had drifted away from the influence of the church. She was in the hospital and was soon to come out. The worker asked whether she had better go and see the parish priest about her or leave her to the influence of a Methodist woman who was interested in her. I said to her: "That woman has grown up as a Catholic, and if she were not a recipient of charity she would choose her own church, and it is not for us to say whether she shall become a Methodist or Presbyterian, or this or that. She was born a Catholic and Catholic influences are perhaps strong with her. As a child her life was associated with the forms and ceremonies and teachings of the Catholic church, and for us to assume that anything else would be better for her seems to us to be high-handed. Even supposing that we know more than the wisdom of ages as to what is the best religion for any one, there is another point to consider. The great Catholic church is doing a large amount of charitable work, and it is extremely important that all the churches should come to do that on the most enlightened principles, and how can we expect to work together unless we do it in absolute good faith with them all? We should never use our influence for proselytism." She saw the point. To that extent she was able to realize that the whole was greater than any of its parts; that the whole welfare of intelligent work in Philadelphia was more important than the carrying out of any plan for one individual.

I believe that the advent of the paid worker has been a thoroughly good thing for charity work, but the larger part of the charity work of the world always will be, and ought to be, done by volunteers, so our best work is done when we help volunteers

to do their best work. The best work after all is done by a large group of volunteers working with a small group of professionals. They learn from each other, criticize and help each other, and the point of view of each is modified by comparing it with the point of view of the other.

MR. LOW asked how good trained paid workers could be found.

MISS RICHMOND.— A great many professional workers commence as volunteers. That is one argument for having volunteers. We raise money to pay for scholarships in training, giving $25 a month for six months for training. It is easier to get the money than it is to get the women to spend it on.

A paper, "The Volunteer Worker, was read by Mr. A. W. Gutridge, of St. Paul. (Page 303.) A short address on the "Visiting Nurse" was given by Mrs. Wiggs, of Atlanta, who said that their great aim was to help people to help themselves. She thought the visiting nurse was one of the most effective agencies connected with the church.

MISS IDA M. CANNON, visiting nurse of St. Paul, described in brief the work of district nurses, and said they should be women of broad training in order to fit them for coming in contact with all classes of people. It is a good plan for a nurse to have had some training in sociological subjects before taking up this special work, so that she may know how to act in harmony with charity organization societies and other charitable societies.

MISS CURTIS, of Boston, said that if people cared to have good volunteer workers they must be put under experienced workers, such training as they get in Boston under Miss Smith. The amount of training any volunteer can stand can be discovered only by giving that volunteer visitor a sense of the vastness of the work to be done and the responsibility that rests on her and the teaching of the value of the work that any one person can do. It is not by minimizing the work that can be done by volunteers that the most aid can be secured. A volunteer worker should receive as much training as a paid worker if she will take it. If as much stress were put upon the training of the volunteer visitor as upon the quality of the volunteer there would be great improvement.

MR. ALMY spoke in high terms of the paper by Mr. Gutridge. He said in Buffalo they have 154 volunteer workers and though he believed in having their help, it takes endless patience and perseverance to keep them up to the level where they will all

do their work well. It is as easy to pauperize a volunteer agent as to pauperize a family. If he has too much done for him he rests right upon the paid agents. They do not become sufficient to themselves so that they can go forward alone without a good deal of training. It is a continual effort to keep the paid agents from doing the things themselves instead of having the volunteers do them.

Rev. G. D. Langston, of Atlanta, made a plea for better training for volunteer workers. He was anxious to have a charity organization society organized in Atlanta and showed by illustrations how greatly such a society was needed with wisely trained workers.

Mr. William Potts, General Secretary Associated Charities, Orange, N. J., said that he represented a society semi-urban and semi-rural. It is not only a charity organization society but a society for improving the condition of the poor. Great care has to be exercised in a society which must give material relief as well as endeavor to get the co-operation with other organizations. Orange has a very good training school for nurses and there is a nurses' settlement also there. The nurses who are trained in the school go into residence in the settlement for a time. Co-operation is also secured with the churches, though the society itself holds a strictly non-sectarian attitude.

Miss Higgins, of Boston, said that Mr. Langston, of Atlanta, was going to attend the summer School of Philanthropy in New York, so that Atlanta would be sure of at least one well trained volunteer worker. She thought the way to train volunteers was to give them responsibility. Another important thing was to find out what special work each volunteer was best adapted to do. Some might be good friendly visitors, others might help in other ways, but there should always be some definite thing given to each one to do.

Mr. Glenn thought the distinction ought not to be between paid and unpaid workers, but between professional and volunteer workers. Pay has nothing to do with the question. The emphasis must be put on the question of training. It is about time that we ceased to draw lines on the matter of payment. One does not think the work of the clergyman is less religious because he gets a salary. Again, charity organization societies are sometimes criticised because they raise money to pay salaries or for office rent. If we pay a good agent $500 a year we are doing a great deal more for the poor with that money than if we spent it directly on the poor themselves. A trained agent, who is capable, devoted and sympathetic and who knows what she is about will do not less than five thousand dollars worth of good in a

year. The statistics would show that more good is accomplished by paying good workers, people who can not afford to give their time for nothing and putting them into the work and bringing them into personal contact with the poor and the rich, with people who have leisure and time, and drawing them into the service of the community, than in any other way.

MR. BICKNELL.— I have a story to tell you of an Irishman out of a job who went round to a circus to get one and the manager said the royal Bengal tiger had just died and he asked the Irishman if he could get into the skin and crawl into the cage and play he was the tiger. The man said he could, and he got into the skin and crawled into the cage and the manager exhibited the royal Bengal tiger and pulled his tail and prodded him and made him caper, and when the crowd was enthusiastic he said: "Now, just to illustrate the manner in which I can manage these savage beasts I am going to turn this royal Bengal tiger in with the great African lion," and so he opened the door between the cages. The Bengal tiger showed symptoms of hesitation, but the keeper was energetic and prodded him on and the tiger under his breath said, "Oh mercy, mercy." Whereupon the African lion replied sotto voce, "Don't be afraid; I am Irish too." It seems to me that we who are together here are all Irish, and we do not need to be afraid to express our opinions. The distinction between the paid and the unpaid worker is rather a question of quality. The work of the unpaid worker is sometimes admirable, but the work of both is necessary. It seems to me the question is settled, and that we do not need to come to this Conference to discuss whether we shall pay the pastor of our church a salary, or whether we shall pay a fee to the physician who attends our families, or whether we shall pay our charity workers. That question is answered in the west.

Mr. Weller presented a report on "Free Transportation and Charity Rates," which was distributed in pamphlet form.

TENTH SESSION.

Tuesday Morning, May 12, 1903.

The Conference was called to order by the President at 9:30 A. M. Prayer was offered by Rev. C. A. Langston, of the Unitarian church, Atlanta.

The subject for the morning was the report of the Committee on Diseases and Dependence, Housing and Sanitary Inspection, Mrs. Alice N. Lincoln, Boston, chairman.

Mrs. Lincoln presided during the discussion and before calling for special papers Mrs. Lincoln explained what had been the work of the committee in preparation for the meeting. She had sent to each of the eleven members of the committee three circular letters concerning the plans for the report. With one exception all the members had been heard from and there had been entire harmony in the suggestions adopted. Several plans were suggested which could not be carried out for lack of time.

A paper on "Relation of Disease to Dependency" was read by Mr. Homer Folks, Commissioner of Charities, N. Y. (Page 334.)

Mrs. Lincoln.— Twenty-three years ago when I first started out on tenement house work I had the great advantage of going for counsel to the parish priest who worked for twenty-five years in the same parish. He gave me counsel and help and strength and encouraged me in my work beyond expression. A good many years ago he was called away to his rest, but in thinking of tenement house people and of those who are dependent, I cannot help thinking of Father Duncan and how much I owe to him and with that memory it was a great pleasure to ask Father McMahon to speak for us to-day.

A paper on "Accidents and Hurtful Occupations as Causes of Dependence" was then read by Rev. Dr. D. J. McMahon, of New York. (Page 340.) Discussion followed, opened by Dr. Geo. F. Keene, Superintendent Hospital for Insane, Howard, R. I.

DISCUSSION OF DISEASE AND DEPENDENCE.

Dr. G. F. Keene, R. I.— In whatever way we may look at heredity, whether in a Calvinistic way as a foreordination, or whether we look on it as an incident in evolution, it should stimulate us in every case where we attack these great social problems of disease and dependency. In Washington we have a bureau of animal industries that tells us all about the breeding of animals and about their diseases. I hope it will not be long before we shall have something to tell us about improving the breed of man. In one of the greatest sermons ever preached it was said, "Blessed are they which do hunger and thirst after righteousness for they shall be filled." Now righteousness is conformity to law. Every moment of our lives we are living under the operation of law. If we disobey it is to our own undoing and in many cases it results

in the undoing of our fellow men, for no man liveth to himself alone. These diseases are the result of unrighteousness. We must eat, we must drink, we must sleep, we must work, we must rest in accordance with law. If we do too much, or too little nature will have her reprisals. Intemperance in eating and in drinking are sometimes followed by the gravest diseases, for the immutable laws know nothing of extenuating circumstances. And in this connection I may say that we have an individual in our midst who may sit at our firesides, eat at our tables, worship at our altars, graduate from our best institutions of learning, sit in the councils of the nation, help make our laws; and again who is found in our brothels, in every den of vice, in all our penal, reformatory and eleemosynary institutions, which are swelled by his preaching; he is ubiquitous and immortal. He lives in the slums and the Four Hundred are not out of his reach. And in his dying he exemplifies the great truth that wine is a mocker and strong drink is raging; he that is deceived thereby is not wise. So there are cases also in which the lack of fresh air and sunlight, which are so necessary to health and life, is the cause of some of our most distressing diseases. We have systematically built out the sunshine and air, or only allowed so much to get in that it is entirely insufficient for the support of life. The laws of hygiene tell us that in order to have a sufficient amount of fresh air for life and health we should have 3,000 cubic feet per hour for each individual. But think of some of the crowded tenement houses in our large cities! The most fierce hurricane ever known in the country or in the history of man would be required to furnish 3,000 cubic feet of air in such places.

Since the discoveries of the immortal Pasteur and the illustrious Koch we have learned that certain diseases are due to the development within us of myriads of micro organisms which render those diseases infectious because of these germs being breathed into the atmosphere; that the infected person throws off disease in his breath, in his clothing, in his excrements, in his person. What a responsibility there is upon us, what a mission we have to perform to prevent the contamination from infectious diseases.

One of the most important of these infectious diseases, a disease which is as surely, though more slowly, fatal as Asiatic cholera is tuberculosis, familiarly known as consumption. We know that every new case of consumption must come from some other case directly or indirectly. This disease causes the death of one-seventh of the human race. It causes annually in the United States 100,000 deaths. You see then the great necessity for us to engage in a crusade against this disease, a disease which is as

preventable as smallpox. Such a crusade has been started in some of the larger cities.

When we shall realize that the life of a human being is a responsibility, that his untimely loss is a public misfortune, then we shall be eager to add our little help not only in providing a pure water supply, a proper sewage disposal, an uncontaminated milk supply, but pure air and sunlight in human dwellings.

MR. C. F. COX, Chairman of the Committee on Tuberculosis of the C. O. S., N. Y.— I think the most useful thing I can do is to give you a plain statement of what the New York Charity Organization Society's committee on tuberculosis has been trying to do. In the first place let me say that we have not attempted to do the work of the Health Board or of the medical profession for the excellent reason that we have a good Board of Health in New York and do not need to supplement their work, and because the movement against tuberculosis in our city was begun by the physicians and they are working heartily in co-operation with us.

The work of our committee is divided into four parts. First, investigation; second, education; third, alleviation; fourth, co-operation.

Under the head of investigation we have undertaken to find out as far as we can, why New York has so much tuberculosis, why certain parts of the city have so high a death-rate from this cause, why certain houses appear to be death traps to the people who live in them, why certain races and classes are more susceptible than others and whether certain occupations are not more or less fatal to those who engage in them by reason of their inducing or promoting tuberculosis. For this work we have employed a skilled statistician, Miss Brandt, who has sifted and tabulated the records of the health board and other masses of facts and figures, and who has published some of her results in *"Charities."*

Under the head of education we have distributed an enormous mass of printed matter in the form of circulars and pamphlets, to the inhabitants of the tenement house region, to the employees of large corporations and to the occupants of institutions telling them in familiar language what tuberculosis is, how it is passed from one person to another and how the infection may be avoided. These papers were prepared partly by ourselves and partly by the Board of Health in co-operation with us.

They are printed in various languages so as to be intelligible to the different classes of inhabitants. We have also conducted an extensive course of lectures; eighty-five having been given under our own immediate supervision and more than

twenty in the course of popular lectures arranged by the Board of Education. The latter are not for school children but for the education of the masses. A large number of these lectures have been illustrated by means of the magic lantern and delivered by men competent to deal with the subject, — the lecturers having been passed upon by a committee of physicians before they were appointed to give the lectures. The lectures have been delivered in seven different languages and at least ten thousand people have attended them, the best audiences having been secured in the poorer parts of the city and the most eager hearers having been the Hebrews and the Italians.

In the way of alleviation, we have had a sub-committee on treatment of cases under the chairmanship of Miss Wald of the Nurses Settlement and this committee has done most valuable work. During the winter a total of about one hundred and fifty cases have been cared for by this committee and more than one hundred have been under its charge at one time. We have had for that work an agent and four nurses who have visited the sick and advised and helped them in every way possible. Many have been removed to the country and board has been found for them there. In cases in which the disease was not far advanced and the sick person seemed able to earn wages we have obtained employment for them. We have collected about $8,000 in money for them through public appeals in the newspapers.

As to co-operation, we have endeavored to work with and assist the Health Board, the Department of Charities and any department of the city government that has conducted work against tuberculosis. We have also undertaken to co-operate with dispensaries, hospitals, and other institutions and to promote the establishment of sanatoria for the treatment of tuberculosis. In our effort to promote the establishment of sanatoria by the city government we went so far as to employ architects to make plans which we have placed at the disposal of the public authorities. Under the influence of the public sentiment aroused by our endeavors the Board of Aldermen has recently passed resolutions declaring that the city ought to have ample sanatorium accommodations for the tuberculous poor and calling upon the Health Board and Mr. Homer Folks, our Commissioner of Charities, to present a statement of the city's needs in this respect. Mr. Folks has been good enough to express a desire for the assistance of our committee in securing some practical measure as the result of this movement, and it is hoped that New York may set a worthy example to the rest of the country as to a broad-minded and thorough method of dealing with this most deadly disease.

Ex-Chief Justice Logan C. Bleckley, Georgia.— I want to give you one practical suggestion. One reason why there is so much tuberculosis is that the respiration is not free at night. To have the best sanitary and hygienic conditions there must be free respiration and free circulation. These are hindered by the weight of covering to which we submit during the winter. The body wants ventilation, especially at night and it should sleep in a volume of air and this can be secured by having a simple framework under the bed clothes that will bear their weight. (Judge Bleckley then showed the contrivance which he himself uses and which he said had been of great benefit to his health. The thick cotton comforters used in place of blankets throughout the south in winter, especially by the Negroes, make, he said, some such arrangement necessary).

Miss Frances G. Curtis, Boston.—The Sanatorium at Rutland, Mass., is the first of the sort in this country and it is planned on the best modern notions. Its value is not so much as a sanatorium, perhaps, as its educational value among the people outside, those who are not sent there to be cured. The doctors in charge do not like to use the word "cured." They use the word "arrested." The number of cases where the disease is arrested is surprisingly large. Such sanitoriums can do a vast amount of good and the patients who go back to their homes preach the lessons they have learned to their neighbors. The actual treatment consists practically in supplying unlimited air. The windows are kept open and the winds blow over the heads of the patients even with the mercury at 15 degrees below zero. The windows are up very high and the wind does not strike the pillows. The patients are kept in the sun all day. They are not allowed to be in the house at all. They have food every two hours, largely milk and eggs. The cost of the institution is very great on account of the bills for food.

The great trouble in the treatment is that cases are not sent in the incipient stage. The signs of tuberculosis are not always recognized soon enough. More stress should be laid on the fact that if you can get hold of the case in time almost every one can be cured.

Mrs. Granger.— We have no such work in Georgia and we need it. Physicians have not given much attention to the matter of which Judge Bleckley speaks. In the country homes the people use a great weight of covering. They have what they call "comfortables," which are really very uncomfortable and which entirely prevent ventilation of the body during the night. The poorer the homes, the colder the houses and the greater the weight of the covering on the beds.

A MEMBER. There is nothing so good for covering as well-washed and well-combed wool in a white cover. It is as warm as down and far better. The pressure on the respiratory organs is very little with such a cover.

MRS. R. H. TAYLOR, Georgia.—The women connected with our Women's Club are trying to inaugurate proper hospital care for the factory operatives. Instead of devoting ourselves to our own mental culture we decided that we would look after this much needed work. We have in Griffin six cotton mills and there has been no organized charity of this kind. We have received some help from our county officials and have a beginning in the form of $1,200. We have organized a hospital association and shall now be glad of suggestions and advice from those who have experience in this sort of work.

MRS. LINCOLN.— It is pleasant to hear of such an earnest effort for an object that is evidently much needed.

MR. H. WIRT STEELE, Seattle, Washington.— Though I come now from the west my experience has been in Chicago, where there has been organized an anti-tuberculosis committee that will work through the poorer districts along lines that are now commonly used in other cases, carrying on an ambulatory treatment of tuberculosis. Propaganda work will be done and a careful study will be made of each individual case by the charity workers, visiting nurses and physician. Records will be made of the cases and of the houses in which they occur. In a few months this will show whether there is a recurrence of cases in those houses. Special attention will be paid to treating the patients in their own homes. This was started by physicians, who gathered round them the workers in the Bureau of Charity, the Visiting Nurses' Association, and the work is thoroughly systematized and I think we shall be glad to hear from Chicago next year on this subject.

MR. HOMER FOLKS.— I think there is one other word to be said about the matter of tuberculosis in public hospitals. All large city general hospitals of a public nature have a good many tuberculous patients. I found that we had 315 in two or three of our large hospitals, who were in part in wards occupied by other patients and in part in separate wards. The point I wish to reach is this, that it is not necessary or wise to allow these conditions to continue to exist until at some future time some sanatorium can be built and equipped and opened at some distance from the city. In the meanwhile a great deal can be done for consumptives both in the later stages of the disease and in the earlier in the city hospitals and without the establishment of any separate institution. If the consumptives are colleced and placed

in buildings by themselves it does not increase the number and if the same kind of food and treatment are given that would be given in an ideal sanatorium at some future time very much could be done for them. We have for instance 500 consumptive patients in our hospital for consumptives in New York on Blackwell's Island and we have cases in every stage of the disease. Though it is supposed to be a temporary affair until better things can be had, yet the number of cases where the disease has been arrested is surprising. We have found it wise to give, so far as possible, this extra food and outdoor life and all the things that are given in first class sanatoriums in all stages of the disease.

MR. BRACKETT.— Will Mr. Folks tell us what is the increase in cost with this extra dietary and care?

MR. FOLKS.— We have revised our dietary in the general city hospitals, materially improving it, introducing new kinds of food and having it all under the direction of the medical board and a dietician who has had wide experience. The expense of the improved hospital dietary was but little more than the expense of the former dietary, although the patients seem to be getting a great deal more to eat. You will be shocked when I tell you how little it costs. We buy in very large quantities and so get milk and eggs and fish at prices which seem almost ridiculous. The cost of the food materials in use in the general hospital dietary is 74 cents per person per week. We prepared the dietary for consumptives regardless of cost, giving three meals a day and luncheons between and something in the evening and found the cost was $1.45 a week. In 1902 the number of deaths in the city of New York was 540 less than in 1901. That means that 540 more people were living in 1902 than there would have been under the old conditions.

Our dietary is printed on a card and posted in every ward and it can be sent to any one who will address to me a postal card asking for it. Our dietician is a young woman, a graduate of the Kansas Agricultural College, who went abroad for original studies in the subject and who was then appointed in general charge of preparation, distribution and serving of food in the hospital for insane, Elizabeth, N. J. She was subsequently appointed to a similar position in Kings County Hospital, N. Y., and her work was so valuable and so necessary that on the first of last October I detached her from that institution and transferred her to the central office where she has charge of the revisions of the dietaries and the distribution and serving of food in the entire department

Mrs. Nellie Peters Black, of Atlanta, was introduced as the vice- president elect of the Conference.

MRS. BLACK.— I feel that the Conference has conferred upon me a great honor and if I can serve you it will be my pride and pleasure. I want to be loyal to you. There is a word which in friendship I love and that is loyalty. And that question of loyalty brings me to something that I want to say. In my work for the little children, as president of the kindergarten association, I have found that the best field for our work lies in the mill section. You represent the charities of the country and charity means love. That is a very broad word and I am afraid you are going away from here without as much love and charity towards the mill owners of the south as I feel that you ought to have. Therefore my loyalty to my friends among those mill owners makes me say a word on that side. I happen to know many mill owners and there was never a nobler set of people in any nation or who give a more paternal — I use the word advisedly — oversight to their operatives, than you will find among our mill owners. I am glad to say this because it is a fact. I know mill owners who have established fine schools, churches and in some cases they pay for carrying on the kindergartens. In Atlanta we have a beautiful kindergarten room at the Exposition cotton mill with an excellent teacher and I have never seen children happier than they are under her care. In Lagrange, Ga., the mill owners pay the expenses of the kindergarten.

When you are talking about child labor I want you to think of the poor little children who are outside of the cotton mills, so many of whom have a worse time than those in the cotton mills. We must improve the condition of our babies, our little children, for it is with the little children that rests the future of the country. There are no people more honest, more noble, than are the mountain people of Northern Georgia, the so-called "crackers." I want you to take what you read about them in the papers with a grain of salt. If you knew them you would love them, as I do. I bring this message of charity and love and I beg when you go back to your homes you will not think that our mill owners are trying to devour every little child on whom they can lay their hands.

A MEMBER from New Orleans.— I am a clergyman, and my work has taken me largely among the poorer classes and especially among those who live in institutions that are maintained by charitable associations. I am impressed with the statement that we are to try to maintain the self-respect of those who are in almshouses. We are not to allow them to think we regard them as criminal paupers, but simply as those who have been unfortunate, as we ourselves might be, through no fault of our own.

Mrs. Lincoln asked Mr. Folks if he would not tell of the changing of the names of some of the New York institutions.

Mr. Folks.— We had an institution known as the King's County Almshouse. It is now called the New York Home for Aged and Infirm Poor. We had a county poor farm in the borough of Manhattan; it is now known as the City Farm Colony. We had a group of institutions at Randall's Island which are known as the city hospitals and schools. A word more about hospitals for consumptives: There is always danger that they will be overcrowded. The way to relieve that is to use tents.. The patients in summer are kept in tents, and they improve faster than anywhere else. The tent part is the best part of the institution, and it costs very little. The patients who once sleep in the tents can not be driven back into the buildings.

Mr. Wines.— If an effort were made to combat tuberculosis in the south, you would suggest using tents?

Mr. Folks.— I should think that would be the thing to do.

Mrs. Isabel C. Barrows, New York.— Physicians are now advising private families to use tents in their yards, with floors sufficiently high to ensure ventilation, where members of the family with incipient tuberculosis are advised to live, if they can not go away to be treated in a sanatorium. The method has much to recommend it if the place for pitching the tent be suitable, for food, proper clothing, companionship and the advice of the family doctor may be at hand.

Mrs. Barrett, of the Florence Crittenden Home.— We have whenever possible, a small tent on the roof for months at a time, and we have arrested the disease in a number of cases. A great many institutions could use roof space in that way.

Mr. Cox.— Very few of the cases of consumption can go to institutions. In New York alone we have 30,000 consumptives, and all the beds put together for them in institutions are not over twelve hundred. The most important part of the work, therefore, is dealing with the individually sick and making them understand that they can help themselves and protect the community by the observance of simple regulations in their own lives. Every man who walks the street with tuberculosis is in danger of doing more harm than would a man with smallpox, because smallpox lasts but a limited time, and tuberculosis lasts three years on the average.

Mr. Pettee, Boston.— The overseers of the poor keep on hand at all times cups such as are used by tuberculosis patients, and our visitors are told to show patients how to use them.

Mr. Brackett was asked to close the discussion, but declined to take more time. Mrs. Lincoln thanked all who had taken part.

Adjourned at 12:30.

SECTION MEETING.

DISEASE AND DEPENDENCE.

Thursday P. M., May 7.

A section meeting of this committee was held Thursday afternoon, May 7th, in the lecture room of the First Baptist Church, Mrs. Alice N. Lincoln, Boston, Mass., Chairman of the Section. The meeting was free and informal and the discussion turned largely upon difficulties in tenement house problems. Many questions were asked Mrs. Lincoln in regard to her experience in Boston. Miss Eleanor Hanson, of St. Paul, said the people of that city are contemplating building houses for the poor this summer. They have been brought face to face with the problem as never before. Many of the houses occupied by poor people are being taken down to make room for other improvements. It is difficult to find places in which to house them. These families are very poor, some of them pay their rent with great difficulty. In the houses they planned to build, they had thought of letting three rooms for six dollars per month. She wished to know what to do with the people who are apt to be destructive and who have difficulty in paying even so small a rent.

Mrs. Lincoln.— Six dollars a month is not enough for three rooms.

Mr. Esterbrook, of Cambridge, Mass. — I think it is perhaps impossible to discuss the amount of rent to be charged, for it varies very much in different parts of the country. Six dollars is low for rent in two or three cities that I know of, low even for tenements of two rooms.

Mr. A. W. Guttridge, of St. Paul. — The proposal has been very carefully considered in St. Paul by an architect and by a gentleman accustomed to building and renting houses. The question of repairs and insurance and taxes was carefully considered. Of course the cost of the land would be less than in Boston. I cannot tell just what it would cost. The gentleman was figuring upon some property of his own, which he was willing to sell at a price which would make these buildings possible.

MRS. LINCOLN. — You do not think that the man contributed his land?

MR. GUTTRIDGE.— I think not. He was willing to make a small contribution, but expected to sell his property for full value.

MRS. LINCOLN. — The last house we built in Boston was built upon land which cost 45 cents a foot, and the property before cost 60 1-4 cents. Wages of course are higher in Boston, and people are able to pay in the houses that we put up $1.75 per week for two rooms, or $2.00 for two rooms, $2.75 for three rooms, $3.00 for four rooms and $3.75, according to location. In the four-room tenements they have five closets and in the three-room four closets, and separate plumbing for each family, except in the case of the two-room tenements. I think that these people should be encouraged to pay more rent for good rooms. I do not know what the wages are out west, but it does not seem to me that a family ought to expect to live on a rent of $6.00 a month. I think it is a pity to have one set of houses for the very poor and another set for those who are less poor. The best method of housing the poor I have seen was in Berlin, where they lived in the same quarters with the very well-to-do. The middle floors were let to well-to-do and the lower and the upper to poor people. It is a pity to have poor people live by themselves; it helps them to live with good neighbors.

MR. EDWARD GRAUMAN, of Louisville. — It has been figured out that no working man can pay more than 20 per cent. of his earnings for rent. In order to rent the tenement cheap enough you had better keep your investment down, and you must select a place where the land is cheap. Therefore, you cannot put the poor with the rich.

MRS. LINCOLN. — In my native city of Philadelphia that is just what is done; the poor and the rich live under similar conditions, the rich are on the front and the poor on the back.

MR. GRAUMAN. — Our city, Louisville, has a building restriction law. You can put up frame houses with the consent of your neighbors in certain districts. The cheaper you can construct your houses the less rent for occupants. We figure that we can produce a brick house at an average cost of $600 a room. Add the cost of the ground, and you have the principal cost of your room, and you can see what you can rent two or three rooms for. In the frame houses the cost is about $150.00 per room. A house of forty rooms would cost from $6,000 to $6,500.

MRS. LINCOLN. — Our property is owned by a company. The directors give their services, with the exception of a paid

clerk, who assists the treasurer, and therefore all the work done is not paid for, but we intend it to be a business enterprise. The houses are put up in the outlying districts of Boston, but in easy reach of the center of the city. We believe in employing women exclusively as agents. Women are natural housekeepers. We require that our agents, when an application is made for one of our tenements, shall investigate the character of the family, shall go to the house where they live and see what sort of a family is living there, and see if they would make desirable tenants, and also to the employer of the man to see if he is temperate and reputable. If the references are good we take in the family. I have never allowed our agents to say that they would not take a family because there were five or six children in it. We must try to teach the children not to be destructive. Before I left Boston I visited our Harrison Avenue tenement house block. Right in the middle of the yard used was a beautiful bed of blossoming tulips, and the children respect these plants and do not pull them up, and regard them as their own, taking pride in them. We want to have children to whom we can appeal, who will say these are our tulips and our geraniums. All these houses are built around a park, twenty-four houses around one park. That means that they are facing on four streets, and on the rear there is this park, on which they all look out. We have trees and shrubs and flowers in the park. We believe in getting good, self-respecting people, in getting them to respect us and letting them know that we respect them. There are three families to each house, except in the four corner houses, where there are six families. These last are tenement houses under the new law, the others are dwelling houses. In the more crowded part of the city we have houses five stories high.

Mr. Esterbrook. — The situation in Cambridge is, I think, more like that in Louisville and other western cities than the situation in Boston or New York is like those newer cities. Cambridge has less than 100,000 people, and it is further a suburb of Boston. The house problem is a part of the bigger problem of the metropolitan district. As a rule the houses are not more than three stories high. Each city has a peculiar problem, and yet there are numerous rules that must be followed everywhere. It seems to me that we might exclude certain families who are utterly destructive. There is a lowest grade in every community, but excluding that very small part of the population, those men and women who are generally called the lowest can be reached by the tact and kindness of the rent collector. It is not charity that is needed, but simply good common sense combined with business. I think there are few families that cannot be made

to respect the rights of the landlord. In regard to sanitary inspection, it is very important that the Board of Health should have agents who are to a certain extent sanitary experts. Sanitary engineers who have made a special study of this field, men and perhaps women, are going to have a field for their work. A great many men and women in the next twenty years who have been working in different charities, will see that they can accomplish more by being rent collectors than they can in any other way. The relation of landlord to tenant is a natural one, and the amount of preventive work that can be done by such a rent collector is immense. Every day that he goes through a tenement house he has a chance to answer a dozen questions that are vital in the lives of some of the occupants.

Mrs. Lincoln. — The problem of good housing is one of the most important. We must begin with the beginning. At Birmingham, England, one man was farsighted enough to grasp the situation. They built a magnificent street right down through the city. The houses were built by private capital, and in 90 years it reverts to the city. In the rear of these houses this farseeing and wise man, Mr. Joseph Chamberlain, when he was mayor of Birmingham, induced the city to put up small homes for working people, so that they are accommodated near where they want to live. The front was used for city purposes, and the rear was used for tenement houses. They are all well laid out and on a comprehensive scheme.

Last year one of the aldermen of Berlin came to see us and was interested to find out what was the relation of the rent paid to the wages received. We made a house to house canvass of the estate in which I am interested, and discovered that the average was ten dollars a week, but we found that the wages of the father were supplemented by those of the son or daughter.

Father MacMahon. — A week ago I made an investigation in a part of my district in New York City and I do not think that there were thirty families in which was more than one person bringing in wages. There is an immense deal of moving in this district. A year ago there were twenty families in two houses. Of these twenty families there were only six left; fourteen had moved away.

Mrs. Lincoln, in answer to a question, said.— We always find out what people pay in any given neighborhood before we fix the rental. The company has figured that it must have ten per cent. gross upon its construction in order to pay its stockholders 5 per cent. That means that we have to pay the insurance, the water rates and the salary of the agent. Steam is not furnished. It does not appeal to our people; each family has its

own stove. We give them the very best plumbing, with a sink in the kitchen and a set tub, with good running water.

FATHER MCMAHON thought that $12.00 per month was a high rental for such people as lived on the East Side in New York.

MRS. LINCOLN — But it must be remembered that we rent three rooms for $2.75, or two rooms for $1.75. It is the four-room tenements that are $3.00.

MISS ALICE C. WILLARD, of Chicago. — In my line of work I am interested in the very poor, and the people who do not take care of a good house. Is no one willing to try the experiment of taking them in and trying to get them to do better?

MRS. LINCOLN. — I took an old house with twenty-seven tenants and I still do so. I charge $2.00 for the best rooms, and the poorest are $1.25 for two rooms, and if the people pay in advance I take off ten cents per week; it pays expenses and sometimes a little more.

MR. LEO FRANKEL. — New York is an anomalous city, and the conditions there are different from those in the average cities in the United States. The difficulty is owing to the geographical position—in other words, there is no room. The condition will only be alleviated by rapid transit, and by bridges and tunnels across the rivers.

DR. F. L. HOFFMAN, of New Jersey. — What is done with families living in single rooms?

MRS. LINCOLN. — I have always had single rooms for single couples and for single women but now the Board of Health has interfered and says that cooking must not be done in rooms in which people sleep.

DR. HOFFMAN said that if sacrifice is made more money can be drawn from the family income with which to pay rent. Too much is spent for drink, and too much is spent for poor food. He spoke of "Sunlight" in Liverpool as an ideal community. Every house is different from the rest, and there is a distinct idea of a home. In New York it is practically impossible to have a home.

Friday Morning.

COMMITTEE ON DISEASE AND DEPENDENCE, HOUSING AND SANITARY INSPECTION.

MR. AMOS W. BUTLER spoke on sanitary inspection of institutions.

MR. BUTLER, of Indiana, presented plans for state or county institutions. He suggested that such buildings could be in the form of a cross; one wing for men, another for women, one for

domestic and cooking facilities, and a fourth for purposes of administration. The plan can be modified to suit special needs, and is capable of indefinite adaptation. Mr. Butler advised a special form of construction of brick and iron, by which the need of plaster is eliminated. He said that such buildings are easily administered; can be kept very clean, and are usually free from vermin. This form of construction was first introduced in insane asylums, but is equally well suited to the needs of poor houses. Mr. Butler spoke of the points a county visitor should observe in visiting institutions, and showed a handbook containing questions intended to guide the visitor in his observations.

Mr. Estabrook, of Cambridge, spoke of the need of sanitary inspection of tenements.

Mr. De Forest spoke of recent changes in the tenement house law, and of the need of all cities taking early action to prevent the particularly bad conditions like those now existing in New York.

Mr. Almy, of Buffalo, New York, spoke of the need of activity in comparatively small cities as well as in New York and Chicago: of insufficient quarters for the poor families turned out of the houses ordered vacated; the requirements of the law that landlords collect no rent in houses considered unfit until the necessary changes are made.

Father McMahon, of New York, spoke of the very bad conditions in Long Island City — a part of suburban New York — due to neglect of some years ago.

Miss Curtis, of Massachusetts, spoke of the practical impossibility of building tenement houses for poor families in the center of Boston, because of the stringency of the building law; of her experience and disappointment in managing old houses in which the very poor lived.

Mr. Hubbard, of Ohio, read a paper on "The Housing of the Poor in Cincinnati." (Page 352.)

Mr. De Forest discussed this paper, and answered a question as to the relation of work in New York to that in smaller cities. Mr. Jackson of Minnesota, Mr. Koren of Massachusetts, Miss Willard of Chicago, Mr. Potts of New Jersey, Mr. Pettee of Boston, Mr. Weller of Washington, took part in the discussion.

LAST SESSION.

Tuesday Night, May 12, 1903.

The Conference was called to order at 8 P. M., after some fine music by the choir of the Sacred Heart Church. Prayer was offered by Rev. A. R. Holderby. The first part of the evening

was devoted to a report of the Committee on the Treatment of the Criminal, S. J. Barrows, Secretary of the Prison Association of New York, chairman. Mr. Barrows presided over the discussion. The report of the committee was presented in printed form.

In introducting the subject Mr. Barrows said:

S. J. Barrows, Secretary Prison Association of New York.—As with the poor, so with the prisoner, he is always with us, and it is a matter of satisfaction that this Conference has given perhaps more attention than usual, especially in section meetings, to the problems that relate to the reformation and treatment of the prisoner. In one of these section meetings we have discussed the doing away with the fee system in county jails. We had hoped to-night to have had the subject of prison industries discussed by a man who perhaps knows more about prison systems of the south than any one else, Judge Turner, but a telegram received from him a few hours ago states that he has been unavoidably detained. We had also hoped to have Miss Julia S. Tutwiler, from Alabama, here. You know how long and devotedly she has worked for improving the condition of prisoners, in separating the young from the old offenders, in establishing night schools for them, and in other ways ministering to their reformation. She, too, has been prevented from coming, but she sends a report upon the state of the prisons of Alabama, which will be found in its proper place among the reports from states. She says that the state farms have been a failure in Alabama, but if the experiment has been a failure there it has not been so in Georgia. I wish that some of you who are familiar with the old conditions could see the new as I have seen them this week at the Georgia State Farm. It was a pleasure to see the new spirit and enterprise and the wise administration and intelligent application of principles there illustrated. There are 4,000 acres in the State Farm, very poor land at first, but the tone of it has been brought up, and a large part of it made over in these four years, while the prisoners have been elevated along with the land. One of the difficulties with the lease system has been the high mortality. A gentleman from Louisiana told me to-day that they had lessened the mortality one-third there by changing the system. That speaks well for Louisiana, but I found the other day in Georgia, that with reference to the women during the four years there has not been a death, with from seventy to eighty on an average in the prison. These women work out of doors on the farm and in various healthful occupations. They are kept entirely separate from the men. They have a stone building in which they are comfortably housed, and all the conveniences for healthful living.

With the men the conditions are different, because they send all the broken-down men there from the other camps, so that one sees there the lame and the halt, and those with tuberculosis. It is, therefore, difficult to have a fair test as to the healthfulness of the work for men. The administrator, Captain Foster, has made a business success of the State Farm and it is now proposed that Georgia shall take more and more of the convicts under state management.

In the north we have different conditions, and unfortunately, we have a great deal of idleness among prisoners. The climate is such that they can not work out doors all the year, and they are obliged to have indoor industries. That makes conflict with the labor unions, and this has hampered us at a great many points. In New York we can only make articles for use in the political divisions of the state. That would be very well if the prisoners were allowed to make all the articles the state needs. But in spite of the limitations we have made progress there in prison industries. The trouble, however, is with our jails, where great numbers of men are kept in idleness on account of short sentences. We have a jail in New York where about twenty thousand men are sent during the year, and they lie there in idleness. Their sentences average ten days each. The city has to bear the support and the men lose the good that might come to them if they were employed. The result is mental and physical deterioration.

I think we are all pretty well agreed that prison labor ought to be productive. In England they tried for some years the plan of having the prisoners run tread-mills, for no purpose. A man was sentenced to turn it so many thousand times a day. But prisoners are like other men, they want something to do that will make the chips fly; they want to see the results of their labor. England has given up that system, and is going to establish nothing but productive industries. In New York and some other states we have also educative industries. It does not matter if they build up a brick wall and then have to take it down again the next day, if they have learned haw to do it, and so to do something useful when they go out, that they may earn an honest living.

An address was given by Rev. F. H. Wines, LL. D. (Page 444.)

DISCUSSION.

Mr. Barrows.— If the state will look at the matter of leasing prisoners from the economic side it may be more easily changed. You are letting prisoners out here in Georgia for $100 a

year a head, but the men to whom you let them sublet those men for $180 a year. Why should not the state get that $180? It would be more economical for the state to do this itself than to turn the prisoners over to others. There is another point touched on by Miss Tutwiler: It is to give the prisoner a portion of his earnings. The Negro is not fond of labor, as a good many white people are not fond of it. You can find any number of people of all races who will not work unless they are compelled to, or unless they have some incentive to work from the results to be attained. It is general in Europe to give the prisoner some such incentive. Pennsylvania has done a little in that direction. Prisoners have been able to work over time and have really earned a good deal in this way. There is another principle which may be applied to the great benefit of the state, and that is the parole system, or conditional release. It is a fallacy to think we should release men from prison simply at the expiration of a certain time. The parole system releases a man conditionally, and only when work has been found for him outside before he leaves the prison. It is easy to get work for prisoners on parole. It is hard to get them work under the old system.

Rev. H. H. Hart was invited to continue the discussion.

Rev. H. H. Hart, Chicago.— In visiting your stockade I was interested in the methods of employing your labor; and I found the general principles which govern prison labor were better understood than I had been led to suppose. I found a magnificent piece of masonry on which the men were employed—a fine granite foundation, six feet deep in the ground and twelve above. This work I found was done by the men themselves. I was glad to find that they were learning to do such work. I was interested to learn the use of this building, whether it was for the use of the officers, or what purpose. I found there was to be a court 60 feet square in the center; that the rooms were to be round this, a separate room for each occupant; that they were to be well lighted and ventilated, with running water in each room, so that each inmate will have a perpetual supply of fresh water. I found that the labor of the occupants was to be in accord with the ideas that prevail among us. It is true they will be obliged to labor on the street, but they will wear no striped clothing and no shackles. It struck me as I saw this fine building and heard these plans for the occupants, and the way of handling them, that if it could all be transferred from the *mules,* for whom it is to be used, to the humans in the stockade you would go a considerable distance in solving the method of dealing with the prison problem in this city.

I believe that you are highly favored in the matter of the use of the labor of your convicts. We have to fight for all kinds of employment. You are relieved from trouble with the labor unions. You can have any kind of labor that you choose. I believe it is our duty as citizens to see that there is an opportunity for convicts to work at something which looks forward to an honorable life.

Mr. L. C. Storrs, secretary of the State Board of Correction and Charities for Michigan was introduced as coming from a city (Detroit), where for 17 years they have asked no appropriation for one of their penal institutions, one which has brought a large surplus to the city, showing what can be done with short term prisoners.

Mr. Storrs.— I am glad to bring a message from Michigan. Our experience there has been rather remarkable. We have had two extremes of legislation this past winter, in the time required to transform a bill into a law. Our probation law, enacted this winter had never before been attempted and I am glad here to pay a tribute of gratitude to our beloved chairman (Dr. Barrows), who furnished us much valuable data to present to the legislature, and thus aided materially in securing for our state a law for the probation of prisoners and for the appointment of probation officers. Our indeterminate sentence legislation is an entirely different story. In 1889 the legislature of Michigan enacted an indeterminate sentence law. I think there were only three states which had at that time such a law, namely: Massachusetts, New York and Ohio; Michigan was the fourth. For two years prisoners were sentenced under that law, but in 1891 there was a case brought by *habeas corpus* to the supreme court on the ground that the law was unconstitutional, and the prisoner not lawfully sentenced. Four of the five justices decided that the law was unconstitutional. We had then to go to work and amend our constitution and in 1893 a resolution was introduced in the legislature submitting to the voters a proposition to amend the constitution so that such a law could be enacted. From that time till 1901 such a resolution was introduced each session but failed of adoption. In the legislature of 1901 the effort was successful and the resolution was adopted and the vote on so amending the constitution was taken last November. On Prison Sunday, in October, just before the vote was taken the subject was very generally brought before the churches throughout the state and the vote to amend the constitution was carried by over 68,000 majority. An indeterminate sentence bill was introduced in the

present legislature and passed; received the approval of the governor, and is now a law. I have given these details for the encouragement of any one who is trying to do good work with much that is discouraging. "Be not weary in well doing, ye shall reap if ye faint not." I had given up hope of ever seeing the indeterminate sentence adopted in Michigan; but we have been at last successful after twelve years of hard work.

Mr. Hart reported for the Committee on Resolutions the resolution offered by Miss Richmond and recommended its passage. The resolution was unanimously adopted. (Page 522.)

MR. HART. The Committee on Resolutions respectfully recommends the adoption of the following:

The thirtieth annual meeting of the National Conference of Charities and Correction has been one of the most successful and inspiring meetings ever held by the Conference. This success and inspiration have been largely due to the generous hospitality and the intelligent sympathy with which the Conference has been welcomed by the splendid City of Atlanta. We desire to place on record our admiration for the business enterprise, the beautiful hospitality and the philanthropic spirit of her people. Therefore, be it

Resolved, That the heartfelt thanks of this Conference are hereby extended to the citizens of Atlanta for their cordial welcome, for their numerous social courtesies, including four delightful receptions, and for their interested attendance upon the sessions; to the Mayor and his subordinates for their official courtesies; to Dr. Longino and his associates on the Local Committee for the admirable arrangements made by them; to Mrs. Nellie Peters Black and her associates on the Ladies' Committee for their contributions to the delight of our sojourn, and particularly, for the lavish and artistic floral decorations; to the musicians who have delightfully entertained us; to the Baptist Church for the free use of their commodious house of worship; to the choirs who have rendered beautiful selections; to the Carnegie Library and its librarian for co-operation in the industrial exhibit; to the newspapers for the sympathy and discrimination with which they have expounded the Conference in both their city and their editorial departments; to the hotels for their considerate treatment of their guests; to the railroads for the special concession of half rates; to all of the individuals and organizations which have contributed to the pleasure and the profit of this meeting.

Resolved, That the thanks of the Conference are hereby extended to the Rev. Charles H. Parkhurst, D. D., for his noble and uplifting conference sermon.

The resolution of thanks was unanimously adopted with hearty applause.

The following was presented by Mr. Hart for the Business Committee:

Resolved, That we recommend to the people of Georgia and her sister States of the South:

First, the organization of State Conferences of Charities, like the conferences which exist in Virginia and many other States, to meet in the fall of 1903 and annually thereafter.

Second, that the State Conferences of Charities, the Bar Associations, the State Federations of Woman's Clubs, and other public organizations unite in securing the establishment by the Legislatures of their several states, of State Boards of Charities, so constituted as to be kept free from partisan or political control.

The remainder of the hour was devoted to farewell remarks by the president, Mr. deForest, the chairman of the Local Committee, Dr. T. D. Longino, Mr. Sam Small and the newly elected president, Mr. Jeffrey R. Brackett, of Baltimore.

The Conference adjourned sine die at 10:30 P. M.

SECTION MEETING.

TREATMENT OF THE CRIMINAL.

Friday P. M., May 8.

The meeting was opened at 2:30 P. M. by the chairman, Samuel J. Barrows, Corresponding Secretary of the Prison Association of New York. The discussion was opened by General C. A. Evans, member of the State Prison Commission of Georgia.

Mrs. E. E. Williamson, of New Jersey, was asked by the chairman to speak on probation work.

Mrs. Williamson.— After having been a probation officer for two years I believe I have shown that prevention is the most important thing. I offered myself in my own state as a probation officer of my own county. I received the appointment very quickly. I believe that it is the greatest preventive measure that

we have evolved in this movement which is going all over the United States. Shortly, I believe, we shall have probation officers over the whole of the United States. It is particularly pleasant to me to note the good work that I have been able to do among adults. In all cases I have placed the probationer back in his own home with his own people; he did not go out with the stigma of any institution. I have found that stimulating the self-respect of the man and of the woman has been a very large part of the reform work; it is a wonderful factor. It is important to make a friend of him. I have been touched by the value of the friendly relation thus established.

Rev. Cyrus Mendenhall, Chaplain Reformatory, Ionia, Michigan.— If we had ideal sheriffs and ideal jailors much of my work would be unnecessary. I have seen sheriffs and criminals chained together and both of them drunk. I could tell things that might sound to some of you like fairy stories. I believe certainly in the religious element; not that any one single method should be employed, but the power of religion should be brought to bear upon the individual.

In response to various questions from the audience in regard to the prison system of Georgia, General Evans said:

General Evans, Atlanta, Georgia.— Under the contract system, misdemeanor convicts are employed on public works. They are contracted for in certain numbers for certain kinds of work by parties who pay so much per month for them. We have established at Milledgeville, about half a day's ride,— a prison village of about 4,000 acres. That farm is divided into three departments. One is for boys of sixteen years of age and under who are convicted in the states and superior courts. They feed seperately, sleep separately and work separately from the other convicts and they have a chance to come out from there and become good citizens. They are there two, three or four years. We have also a reformatory to which boys are sent. The next department is composed exclusively of women. They occupy a fine, capacious stone building which is kept as neat and clean as any home in the city. There are about eighty of them.

Question. What proportion of them are white?

Answer. Four out of the eighty.

Question. Are the women in charge of matrons?

Answer. A man and his wife have charge of this building, the wife acting as matron. The other department is composed of men who in the judgment of the commission should not be hired out. Men who are old or diseased or are one-armed, one-legged.

They are sent to the prison farm and worked in the open field. They raise corn, wheat, sugarcane, and vegetables in great abundance.

A question was asked in regard to the proportion of whites and colored.

Answer. It is a very painful fact to us throughout the south that ten to one of the prisoners and convicts of this state are negro. There are about 4,500 convicts in Georgia, not out of proportion to population in other states; but the painful thing about it is that four thousand of them belong to the negro race. I can, as a southern man, a son of a slave-holder myself, say that there never was any consent among us to the righteousness of the slave trade, but there was a thorough conviction on our part that slavery having been established we were bound to do the best for the slaves and for ourselves. Under that institution, by a commanding enforcement of law, it happened that after the termination of the difficulty between the North and South we turned over to our country as their wards about six millions of the best people in this world. They were the most law abiding people in the world. Criminals were rare. I do not remember but one murder by a negro; burglaries were very rare, and there were no thefts except such as were petit thefts, and they were condoned. Thousands of them were rebuked and told to go. There were scarcely any insane; they had no diseases. There were two reasons for it. One was that it was my father's interest and my mother's interest to take care of them, for their property was in slaves. That was a low kind of interest. But there was another and higher kind, and that was that my father was a Christian man, and my mother a Christian woman, and as such it was their interest to care for this unfortunate class of people. Under this enforcement of the slavery law, we turned over in 1865 the most law abiding, the healthiest and the most moral people in the world. I would not have one of them back in slavery for anything in the world,, but I would have them be in health, in industry, and in morals what the old Negro was. I tell you that if they were just up to that point we would not exchange them for any class of labor in the world.

In my youth I burrowed with them in the sand and hunted rabbits with them in the field. If I fell in the stream Charles would pull me out, if he fell in I would pull him out, and we have slept in the shade of the same tree. When I had to go to the war, an old man of the family fifty-five years of age, came to me and said, "I am going with you." I said, "You cannot stand it." I thought a man of fifty-five was a Methusala. I said, "Uncle

Mose you cannot go." But he went with me through it to the last and was just as much attached to me as a brother or son. And I was attached to him; and nobody could hurt him without hurting me. I was shot at Gettysburg, and while lying down in the field Mose heard of it. He was not fond of comng where there was danger, but that time he ventured. But when he came up to me he had on the most lugubrious look, and he kneeled down by me and said, "Massa Clem, you'll get killed here some ob dese days with this yer foolishness." In spite of my offer to give him his freedom when we got up into Pennsylvania he insisted on sticking with me, and when Appomatox ended the war the first man that came to comfort me in what I then thought was a disaster was Mose. He brought his horse to my houme in southern Georgia and stayed there. He dubbed himself "General," and the people all called him "General," and he bore the title until as an old gray-headed man he lay down and died in peace, buried with honors.

You know, therefore, how my heart goes out toward the Negro, and how I would like to have him restored to the plane of morality and law abiding character which existed under the enforcement of the plantation law.

Mr. Frank B. Sanborn.— Substantially the same information as that given by General Evans has come to me before concerning the time when this enforced morality prevailed among the colored people of the south. The fact was then and is now that the colored people of the north furnished much more than their due proportion of criminals. I began to investigate prisons during the Cival War, and I had some acquaintance with the subject before; I found that the colored people furnished an undue proportion of criminals. We had an idea that the great preponderance of southern convicts was due to the fact that they were punished for what we should call trivial offenses; but that was not the case in the north. I suppose that the nature of the race is substantially the same, both north and south. Now comes the question, How are we going to meet the difficult problem? I suppose that the education of the hand and the encouragement of industry is perhaps the best solution of this troublesome question. We all have applauded the policy of Booker Washington in this direction. There is one phase of the matter which I think may not have received due attention in the south, and at the north there is a difference of opinion about it. Our Commissioner of Education, Dr. William T. Harris, is very clear that the higher education of the colored people should in every way be encouraged. There is the same difference in intellectual qualification between individuals of the colored race and of our own race.

Those colored men and women who are capable of filling these positions ought to be encouraged to qualify themselves for them. While I have differed very much in political opinion from gentlemen in the south I have always recognized with them and stood on the great natural principle that the men whom nature intended to lead should be allowed to lead.

MRS. KATE G. HAYMAN, Chief of Police Matron, Louisville, Kentucky.— In Louisville all women prisoners are first brought to the police matrons. The great misfortune we are laboring under now is that we have no place for the colored women. After being there for a while I went to a judge and spoke to him about giving a second chance if possible. I found that worked very well. We have sent during the last year thirteen women to the penitentiary, two of them were white, the balance colored. Women who go out and come back again receive the longest term that the law will allow.

GENERAL BRINKERHOFF spoke briefly on the parole system, and endorsed the report of the committee on the treatment of the criminal. He pointed out the necessity of beginning at the bottom. We must begin with the common schools and revolutionize them. Instead of training the head alone we must train the hand and the heart. He believed that if we could have a sufficient number of kindergartens we could reduce crime to one half.

TREASURER'S REPORT FOR THE ELEVEN MONTHS ENDING AUGUST 31, 1903.

ALFRED. O. CROZIER, *Treasurer, in account with* THE NATIONAL CONFERENCE OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTION.

1902.		DR.	
Oct. 1.	To balance on hand		$32 86
	Cash received from Active Members	$2,433 03	
	Cash received from Patrons	600 00	
	Cash received from Visitors' Fees	148 00	
	Cash received from Book sales	711 97	
	Cash received from donations	100 00	
	Cash received from miscellaneous	28 45	
			$4,021 45
			$4,104 31

		CR.	
	By Cash —		
	George H. Ellis, publishing Proceedings	$1,400 00	
	F. J. Heer, publishing Bulletin, printing and stationery	200 00	
	Postage	224 97	
	Clerk hire	363 50	
	F. J. Baker, printing and stationery	65 20	
	Salary of General Secretary	916 67	
	General expense	310 30	
			$3,480 64
1903.			
Sept. 1.	Balance in treasury		623 67
			$4,104 31

TREASURER'S COMPARATIVE STATEMENT.

	Year ending Sep. 30, 1901.		Year ending Sept. 30, 1902.		Eleven months Aug. 31, 1903.	
RECEIPTS —						
Bal. on hand beginning year		$313 28		$115 55		$82 86
Cash from sales of Proceedings	$989 86		$1,343 43		$711 97	
Cash from membership fees and subscription to the *Bulletin*	3,120 45		2,749 93		3,181 03	
Cash from advertising	60 00		30 00			
Cash from Local Comm'ts	800 00		525 71			
Cash from misc. receipts	115 00	5,085 31	131 00	4,780 07	128 45	4,021 45
		$5,398 59		$4,895 62		$4,104 31
DISBURSEMENTS —						
Paid for pub. Proceedings	$2,079 63		$2,034 46		$1,400 00	
Paid for publishing *Bulletin*	567 23		329 10		200 00	
Paid for printing, etc.	413 22		291 90		65 20	
Paid for postage	276 66		387 75		224 97	
Paid for salaries, etc.	1,734 77		1,514 81		1,280 17	
Paid for misc. expenses	211 53	5,283 04	254 74	4,812 76	310 30	3,480 64
Balance on hand, closing year		$115 55		$82 86		623 67

Report of copies of Proceedings of the National Conference of Charities and Correction on hand August 1, 1903:—

Year.	Cloth.	Paper.	In Sheets.	Year.	Cloth.	Paper.	In Sheets.
1874	61			1893	17		500
1875	10			1894	389		
1882	1			1895	304		
1883	8			1896	24		95
1884	28	99		1897	14		370
1885	19			1898	30		450
1886	6			1899	237		500
1887	24	216		1900	280		500
1888	19	40		1901	209		642
1889	299	416		1902	46		300
1890	38	91					
1891	169	29		Total	2,304	1,149	3,357
1892	122	258					

1876, 1877, 1878, 1879, 1880, and 1881 out of print.

LIST OF MEMBERS OF THE NATIONAL CONFERENCE OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTION.

N. B. — Members who were in attendance at Atlanta are marked *.

PATRONS.

CALIFORNIA.

Pala.
Golsh, A. V.

CONNECTICUTT.

New Haven.
Farnam, Prof. Henry W., 43 Hillhouse Ave.

DELAWARE.

Wilmington.
Bancroft, Wm. P.
*Crozier, Alfred O.
Woodward, W. J., 210 N. Second St.

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.

Washington, D. C.
Woodward, S. W., 2015 Wyoming Ave.

ILLINOIS.

Chicago.
Howe, Mrs. F. J., 1922 Barry Ave.

Geneva.
*Amigh, Mrs. Ophelia L.

INDIANA.

Evansville.
Wilson, Miss Mary T.

Ft. Wayne.
*Johnson, Alexander.

Plainfield.
*York, E. E.

IOWA.

Council Bluffs.
Lemen, J. G.

LOUISIANA.

New Orlenas.
Lyons, I. L., 222 Camp St.

MARYLAND.

Baltimore.
Newcomer, Waldo, P. O. Box 552.
Shippen, Dr. C. C., 603 N. Charles St.

MASSACHUSETTS.

Boston.
Lee, Joseph, 101 Tremont St.

Pittsfield.
Nickerson, Rev. Thos. W. Jr., 78 East St.

MICHIGAN.

Detroit.
Baldwin, Mrs. Gertrude H., 8 Madison Ave.
Hudson, J. L.

MISSOURI.

St. Louis.
Nolte, Wm. C., Osage and Virginia Aves.

NEW JERSEY.

Bayonne.
*Fox, Hugh F.

Elizabeth.
*Williamson, Mrs. E. E., Pres., N. J. Conf. of Char. and Cor., 310 N. Broad St.

Newark.
*Hoffman, Frederick L., Prudential Life Ins. Co.

NEW YORK.

Auburn.

Osborne, Thomas M., Pres. George Jr. Republic.

New York.

Bijur, Nathan, 84 Nassau St.
Borg, Sidney C., 20 Nassau St.
*de Forest, Robert W., 30 Broadway.
Dodge, Miss Grace H., 262 Madison Ave.
Dodge, W. E., 99 John St.
Guggenheim, Wm., 71 Broadway.
Heinsheimer, L. A., 27-29 Pine St.
Hubbard, Thos. H., Mills Bldg, Wall St.
Huyler, John S., 64 Irving Place.
*Jackson, Rev. Samuel M., 692 West End Ave.
Kahn, Otto H., 8 E. 68th St.
Loeb, James, Charity Organization Soc.
Loeb, Solomon, 27-29 Pine St.
*Mulry, Thos. M., 10 Perry St.
Pouch, F. E., 305 Adams St., Brooklyn.
Schiff, Jacob H., 27 Pine St.
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[Established by Act of 1903, approved March 25, 1903.]

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[Established by Act of Congress, approved June 6, 1900.]

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STATE BOARD OF CHARITY.

State House, Boston.

[Established by Chapter 79 of the Laws of 1879, passed April 30, 1879. Amended by Chapter 101 of Acts of 1886 and Chapter 433, §24, of of Acts of 1898.] See Revised Laws, Chapter 84.

Leontine Lincoln, *Chairman*..Fall River
Henrietta G. Codman, *Vice-Chairman*... Brookline
Charles F. Donnelly.....Boston
Edward Hitchcock, M.D., LL.D..Amherst
Laban Pratt .....Boston
Henry S. Nourse.....*.....Lancaster
James M. Pullman, D.D.....Lynn
Frances G. Curtis.....Boston
George W. Johnson.....Brookfield

Officers of the Board.

Joshua F. Lewis, M.D., *Superintendent of State Adult Poor*.....Boston
William P. Derby, M. D., *Superintendent of State Minor Wards*.....Boston
John D. Wells, *Clerk and Auditor of the Board*..... Boston

STATE BOARD OF INSANITY.

State House, Boston, Mass.

[Established by Chapter 433 of the Laws of 1898, in effect October 1, 1898.]

George F. Jelly, M. D.....Boston
Charles R. Codman.....Barnstable
Seward W. Jones.....Newton
Albert L. Harwood.....Newton Centre
James B. Ayer, M. D.....Boston

Officers of the Board.

George F. Jelly, M. D., *Chairman*..... Boston
Owen Copp, M. D., *Secretary and Executive Officer*.....Boston

STATE BOARD OF PRISON COMMISSIONERS.

State House, Boston.

Henry Parkman .....Boston
Arthur H. Wellman.....Malden
Mrs. Margaret P. Russell.....Boston
Dr. Mary V. O'Callaghan.....Worcester
J. Warren Bailey, *Secretary.*

MICHIGAN.

BOARD OF CORRECTIONS AND CHARITIES.

Capitol, Lansing.

[Established by Act 192 of the Laws of 1871, passed April 17, 1871.]

Aaron T. Bliss, Governor, *ex officio*, Saginaw
Hal C. Wyman, M. D.....Detroit
Chas. W. Light.....Saginaw
Rt. Rev. Geo. D. Gillespie, D. D., Grand Rapids
Henry P. Mowry, M. D.....Bronson

Officers of the Board.

Rt. Rev. George D. Gillespie, D. D., *Chairman* .....Grand Rapids
L. C. Storrs, *Secretary*.....Lansing

MINNESOTA.

BOARD OF CONTROL OF STATE INSTITUTIONS.

State Capitol, St. Paul.

[Established by Chapter 122, Laws of 1901, approved April 2, 1901.]

Hon. Silas W. Leavett.....Litchfield
Hon. James A. Martin.....St. Cloud
Hon. O. B. Gould.....Winona

Officers of the Board.

Hon. James A. Martin, *Chairman*, Litchfield
Mr. H. W. Wright, *Secretary*....St. Paul

STATE LUNACY COMMISSION.

State Capitol, St. Paul.

Dr. Charles E. Riggs, *Chairman*, St. Paul
Dr. W. F. Milligan .....Wabasha
Dr. C. O. Cooley.....Madelia

MISSOURI.

STATE BOARD OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTIONS.

Jefferson City.

[Established by Senate Bill 320 of the Laws of 1897, passed March 19, 1897.]

Alex. M. Dockery, Governor, Jefferson City
H. E. Robinson.....Marysville
Miss Mary E. Perry.....St. Louis
Dr. A. C. Pettijohn.....Brookfield
Mrs. Julia G. Hurt.....Kansas City
Ralph Wommack .....Bloomfield
F. V. Loos.....Liberty

Officers of the Board.

Alex. M. Dockery, *President ex officio*.....Jefferson City
Miss Mary E. Perry, *Vice-President*, St. Louis
Wesley L. Robertson, *Secretary*, Gallatin

NEBRASKA.

BOARD OF PUBLIC LANDS AND BUILDINGS.

Capitol, Lincoln.

[Established by Chapter 83 of the Laws of 1877, passed Feb. 13, 1877. Provided for in the State Constitution of 1875.]

George D. Follmer.....Lincoln
Peter Morlensen.....Lincoln
F. N. Prout.....Lincoln
G. W. Marsh .....Lincoln

Officers of the Board.

George D. Follmer, *President*....Lincoln
G. W. Marsh, *Secretary*.....Lincoln

NEW HAMPSHIRE.

STATE BOARD OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTIONS.

Concord.

[Established by Chapter 116 of the Laws of 1895, passed July 1, 1895.]

James F. Brennan.....Peterboro
Oliver J. M. Gilman.....Alton
Mrs. Ella L. Follansby.....Exeter
Mrs. Lillian C. Streeter.....Concord
Sherman E. Burroughs.....Manchester

Officers of the Board.

Mrs. Lillian C. Streeter, *Chairman*, Concord
W. J. Ahern, *Secretary*.....Concord

NEW JERSEY.

STATE BOARD OF CHILDREN'S GUARDIANS.

629 Commercial Trust Building, Jersey City.

[Established by Legislative Enactment, March 24, 1899.]

Hugh F. Fox.....Bayonne
Joseph McCrystal .....Paterson
Frederick G. Burnham.....Morristown
Katharine E. Abbey.....Mount Holly
Emily E. Williamson.....Elizabeth
Anthony T. Williams.....Trenton
Rev. J. R. Atkinson.....Elizabeth

Officers of the Board.

Hugh F. Fox, *President*.....Bayonne
Emily E. Williamson, *Treasurer*, Elizabeth
Anthony T. Williams, *Secretary*..Trenton
Seymour H. Stone, *Superintendent*, Jersey City

NEW YORK.

STATE BOARD OF CHARITIES.

The Capitol, Albany.

[Established by Chapter 951 of the Laws of 1867, approved May 23, 1867. [Re-established by Chapter 546 of the Laws of 1896, approved May 12, 1896. Provided for in the State Constitution of 1894.]

William R. Stewart.....New York
Annie G. de Peyster.....New York
Michael J. Scanlan.....New York
Stephen Smith, M. D.....New York
Augustus Floyd .....Mastic
John Notman .....Brooklyn
Simon W. Rosendale.....Albany
Newton Aldrich .....Gouverneur
Dennis McCarthy .....Syracuse
Ralph W. Thomas.....Hamilton
Enoch V. Stoddard, M. D.....Rochester
William H. Gratwick.....Buffalo

Officers of the Board.

Enoch Vine Stoddard, M. D., *President*, Rochester
Stephen Smith, M. D., *Vice President*, New York
Robert W. Hebberd, *Secretary*...Albany
Byron M. Child, *Superintendent of State and Alien Poor*.....Albany
William B. Buck, *Superintendent of Inspection* ..... Albany

STATE COMMISSION IN LUNACY.

The Capitol, Albany.

[Established by Chapter 283, Laws of 1889, approved May 14, 1889. Provided for in the State Constitution of 1894.]

Frederick Peterson .....Albany
William L. Parkhurst.....Canandaigua
Daniel N. Lockwood.....Buffalo
T. E. McGarr, *Secretary*.....Albany

Officers of the Commission.

Frederick Peterson, *President*.....Albany

STATE COMMISSION OF PRISONS.

The Capitol, Albany.

[Chapter 102b, Laws of 1895. Amended by Chapter 430, Laws of 1896.]

Lispenard Stewart, ...New York
John P. Jaeckel, ...Auburn
Cornelius V. Collins, ...Troy

Officers of the Commission.

Lispenard Steward, *President*.
George McLaughlin, *Secretary*.

NORTH CAROLINA.

BOARD OF PUBLIC CHARITIES.

Raleigh.

Charles Duffy, M. D.....Newbern
Edgar L. Haughton.....Pollocksville
William A. Blair.....Winston
W. F. Craig .....Marion
Wesley N. Jones.....Raleigh

Officers of the Board.

Charles Duffy, M. D., *Chairman*.Newbern
Daisy Denson, *Secretary*.....Raleigh

OHIO.

BOARD OF STATE CHARITIES.

State House, Columbus.

[Established by Chapter 4, Revised Statutes of 1867, passed April 17, 1867; amended April 12, 1898.]

Roeliff Brinkerhoff.....Mansfield
J. G. Schmidlapp.....Cincinnati
Martin Dewey Follett.....Marietta
Henry C. Ranney.....Cleveland
Jesse N. Owen.....Wilmington
Rutherford Hayes Platt.....Columbus

Officers of the Board.

George K. Nash, Governor, *President ex officio* ..... Columbus
Roeliff Brinkerhoff, *Chairman*..Mansfield
H. H. Shirer, *Secretary*.....Columbus

PENNSYLVANIA.

BOARD OF PUBLIC CHARITIES.

[Established by Act of Legislature, passed April 4, 1869.]

Francis J. Torrance.....Allegheny
William T. Bell.....Mt. Union
Cyrus B. King .....Allegheny
J. Nicholas Mitchell.....Philadelphia
William B. Gill.....Philadelphia
George W. Ryon.....Shamokin
A. J. Logan .....Pittsburg
Isaac Johnson .....Media
Patrick C. Boyle.....Oil City
Ralph Blum .....Philadelphia
Cadwalader Biddle .....Philadelphia

Officers of the Board.

Francis J. Torrance, *President*..Allegheny
Cadwalader Biddle, *General Agent, and Secretary* ..... Philadelphia

RHODE ISLAND.

BOARD OF STATE CHARITIES AND CORRECTIONS.

[Established by Chapter 291, General Laws, passed May Session, 1869.]

Col. Frank F. Olney.....Providence
Walter A. Read.....Chepachet
George Lewis Smith.....Nyatt
James F. McCusker.....Pontiac
R. H. I. Goddard.....Providence
Philippe Boucher .....Woonsocket
John J. Watson, Jr.....Providence
Robert F. Rodman.....Allentown
Query H. Wilson.....Providence

Officers of the Board.

Col. Frank F. Olney, *Chairman* Providence
Charles H. Peckham, *Secretary*, Providence

SOUTH DAKOTA.

STATE BOARD OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTIONS.

Secretary's Office, Mitchell.

[Established by Chapter 5, Session Laws of 1890, passed March 6, 1890. Provided for in the State Constitution.]

W. E. Tipton.....Mitchell
Wm. M. Powers .....Yankton
D. C. Thomas .....Watertown
Jacob Schmidt .....Menno

Officers of the Board.

D. C. Thomas, *President*....Watertown
W. E. Tipton, *Secretary*.....Mitchell

TENNESSEE.

BOARD OF STATE CHARITIES.

707 Pelmont Avenue, Nashville.

[Established by Chapter 193 of the Laws of 1895, passed May 13, 1895.]

Gov. James B. Frazier.....Nashville
James A. Orman, M. D., D. D., Nashville
Marcus Haase, M. D.....Memphis
W. R. Cole.....Nashville
W. H. Taylor, M. D.....New Market
Hugh W. Tate, M. D.....Bolivar

Officers of the Board.

Gov. James B. Frazier, *President ex-officio* ..... Nashville
James A. Orman, *Secretary*....Nashville

WASHINGTON.

STATE BOARD OF CONTROL.

Olympia.

[Established by Laws of 1901, Chapter 119 (H. F. No. 222).]

Grant Neal .....Olympia
Jesse T. Mills .....Olympia
H. T. Jones.....Olympia

Officers of the Board.

Grant Neal, *Chairman*.....Olympia
C. W. Grant, *Secretary*.

WISCONSIN.

STATE BOARD OF CONTROL.

State Capitol, Madison.

[Established by Chapter 202 of the Laws of 1891.]

*Wm. P. Lyon.....Madison
Herman Grotophorst .....Baraboo
Andrew G. Nelson.....Waupaca
Harvey Clark .....Monroe
Gustav Küstermann .....Green Bay

Officers of the Board.

Andrew G. Nelson, *President*..Waupaca
M. J. Tappins, *Secretary*.....Madison
Herman Grotophorst, *Vice-President*, Baraboo

WYOMING.

STATE BOARD OF CHARITIES AND REFORM.

State Capitol, Cheyenne.

De Forest Richards.....Douglas
T. T. Tynan .....Sheridan
G. E. Abbott .....Cheyenne
Fenimore Chatterton .....Rawlins
Le Roy Grant.....Laramie

Officers of the Board.

De Forest Richards, *President*..Douglas
T. T. Tynan, *Secretary*.....Sheridan

*Resigned July 15, 1903.

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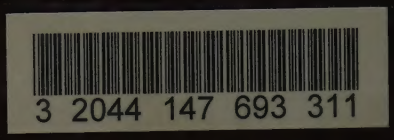
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